# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 15, 1896.

## The Week.

THERE is no better sign of Bryan's fatuity than his failure to use extensively and almost exclusively, from the beginning, the rambling talk of Republican orators and politicians about silver during the last twenty years when they were trying to "placate" the silverites and were holding out lying promises of "international agreement," and buying up their wares for storage. If he had gone round the country with these utterances in his hand and read them to his audiences, without saying one word of his own, we seriously believe that he would have made far more headway and have done far more damage to the country than he has. He was foolish enough to substitute for them a great deal of nonsensical anarchism which has been ruin to the silver cause. No one who has heard him read from Lodge, or Reed, or Sherman, or Harrison can have failed to notice how much more effective his quotations were than his oratory. We think, too, by making these quotations he has been doing the only service he has ever done to his native land. He is bringing demagogy, trickery, ignorance, and time-serving in public men to such shame as has never before overtaken them.

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In a speech at Seymour, Ind., on October 6 he read an extract from President Harrison's message to Congress in December, 1890, immediately after the passage of the Sherman law, which ran as follows:

> "The enlargement of our currency by the silver bill undoubtedly gave an upward tendency to trade, and had a marked effect on prices, but this natural and desirable effect of the silver legislation was by many erroneously attributed to the tariff account."

President Harrison had probably never at this time given any attention whatever to currency or to the effect of currency on prices. When he came into office in 1888, he acknowledged himself to be an "uninstructed political economist"—so uninstructed that he thought a "cheap coat made a cheap man," extolled dearness, and did not know that civilization was another name for the cheapening of all the commodities of life. He is speaking now effectively in favor of sound currency, but he would speak tenfold more effectively if, laying his hand on his heart, he would publicly say: "My friends, when writing and talking about silver between 1888 and 1892, I was writing and talking about a subject I had not studied and did not understand. In fact, I was not talking about currency at all. I was simply getting votes for the party the best way I could. I had no idea of the mischief I was doing. I had no idea of the construction some of you would put on my words, that they would be the means, in part, of creating a party of confusion and folly in this country of ours. I confess my mistake. I bitterly repent. I have looked into the currency matter since then. I understand it now, and I tell you the road we have all been travelling since 1873 is the road to ruin and disgrace, and I advise you to get out of it, even across lots."

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Nothing could be more welcome to sound-money men than the announcement that Gov. Altgeld of Illinois is making himself more prominent than ever in the cause of the Populist candidate as the end of the canvass approaches. Hardly less gratifying is the news that Eugene V. Debs, the "President Debs" who disputed the government of the nation with Grover Cleveland for some days during the railroad strikes of 1894, is to be Altgeld's chief assistant. The boy orator who is running for the Presidency was personally unknown to the country when the canvass opened, and it was of the first importance to learn what sort of men were to be the chief advocates of his election. We have found that they are Altgeld, Tillman, Debs, and Weaver—the worst and most dangerous of men who ever took the stump to champion a candidate. Not one of the eminent men who have upheld the cause of Democracy in previous campaigns favors the election of Bryan. In their places we have Altgeld, Tillman, Debs, and Weaver. Next to Bryan's own speeches, nothing is doing so much to secure his overwhelming defeat as the character of his chief advocates.

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Senator Teller has at last discovered certain inconveniences in campaigning under an undisputed charge of forgery. On September 17 the *Evening Post* republished part of his speech of September 7 at Morrison, Ill., and showed that a series of statements which he then professed to quote verbatim from the British Gold and Silver Commission's report of 1888 did not occur in that report, and were contrary to all the Commission's well-known findings. He now owns up to a Detroit audience that the Commission of 1888 never made the statements ascribed to them in the above speech. The Commissioners did not say that "every country that has gone to a silver basis is in a better condition than the countries on a gold standard," but they presumably would have said so if they had expressed their secret sentiments, and in fact "the report of the Commission was not favorable to the gold-standard nations." All this is very shallow talk, but it is worth a moment's notice, chiefly because the report of 1888 is explicit on some very important points. The Commission was appointed, as every one but Senator Teller knows, primarily to discover what was the trouble with India. As to India's actual condition under free silver coinage, there was no dispute. Not only was its demoralized condition admitted, but the Commission did not hesitate to find analogies in all the other silver-using countries. In the part of the report signed by all the C missioners—even by Houldsworth, whom Mr. Teller quotes with special approbation—occurs the following: "Such [silver-using] countries are in themselves usually poor, and the capital required for their development must generally be attracted from gold-using countries" (Report, Part 1, paragraph 84). In the introduction to that part of the report signed by the silver Commissioners alone, the further plain assertion follows that the fall in silver serves to "discourage investment of capital in, and consequently retard the development of, silver-using countries" (Report, Part 3, Introduction). This statement sounds uncommonly like the New York "gold-bug" argument that "free silver coinage in the United States will break down all our industries through the wholesale expulsion of invested foreign capital." Yet this is Sir William Houldsworth's particular affirmation.

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That some of the Commissioners did, in a very doubtful and hesitating way, and with frequent qualifications, suggest that British trade depression in 1888 might be connected with the fall in silver, is entirely true. Had Senator Teller confined his citation to this, nobody would have found it worth disputing, for silver has fallen vastly lower since 1888, and British trade and industry have revived astonishingly. This puts the argument finally at rest. Moreover, there is an interesting statement in another British Commission report made in that very season of reaction. The Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade, reporting in 1886, admitted frankly that business was in bad condition. They could not then foresee the subsequent revival. But in reviewing trade and price movements of preceding years the Commission said (paragraph 81): "There is no feature in the situation which the Commissioners have been called to examine so satisfactory as the immense improvement which has taken place in the condition of the working classes during the last twenty years." Of the twenty years referred to, fifteen were embraced in the period subsequent to Germany's demonetization of silver.

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Mr. Reed said nothing truer at Bridgeport on Thursday than that "if there is anything in this silver question, it is because it is a disease of the whole world. If it is a disease, it is because it is a world disease." The disease is caused by the unparalleled improvements in the means of communication within a quarter of a century. This has brought all the agriculturists of the world into competition with each other in every market, and the result has been a great fall in the value of the earth's produce. This has fallen, too, on a world laden with leases, mortgages, contracts, and settlements made under another set of conditions, and as the agriculturists are the majority of the human race, they have uttered piercing cries and driven many "thinkers" crazy. The only remedy is to wait for time to set things right, as it always does; for the prices of things we have to sell to adapt themselves to the prices of things we have to buy, as they always do in the long run.

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"Canvasses" and "claims" put forth by party committees are always subject to a large discount, but the straightforward report of his observations made by an investigator who is not in politics is entitled to pass at its face value. Two professors of the University of Wisconsin at Madison recently started out for a bicycle trip of five days. One is a believer in the gold standard; the other is a silver man. They went with the wind, changing their course as the wind shifted, and travelled in all about 250 miles in southern Wisconsin, passing through Dane, Rock, Walworth, and Jefferson Counties, all great farming counties. Simply to gratify their own curiosity, they stopped every man they met or passed on the highway, hailed every man they saw in the field or farmyard, and asked him how he was going to vote for President. When they got back to Madison, they reported that in all those 250 miles of Wisconsin roads they found not one lone man who was going to vote for anybody except William McKinley. At first they thought that the explanation must be that they were passing through a region where the farmers were remarkably free from mortgage burdens, but inquiries showed that there were the average number of mortgaged farms in these counties. The mortgaged men were simply not laboring under the delusion that free silver would lift the mortgages.

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It has been generally assumed that the Venezuelan Commission can report in only one of two ways. It was directed to ascertain the true divisional line between Venezuela and British Guiana, and any such historical line, once ascertained by it, must put either Great Britain or Venezuela in the wrong. Neither alternative would help on a speedy and pacific settlement of the controversy. If Great Britain is right, our demand for arbitration is uncalled for; if Venezuela is right, she imperils by arbitration a position decided by us to be just. A correspondent of the Springfield *Republican*, however, points out that a third course is open to the Commission, which, in connection with the approaching arbitration of the matter, would avoid the difficulties presented by either extreme, and he predicts that it will be adopted—*i. e.*, a report that the data obtainable do not make it possible to establish the true historical boundary; that the country is a vast unexplored wilderness; and that, in fact, there never has been any boundary. It follows that there never can be any boundary by historical inquiry only, nor any whatever except as established for the purpose by negotiation or abitration. Hence the matter ought to be settled in one of these two ways.

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Such a report, if made, would have the advantage over any other of not only avoiding the difficulty already mentioned, but of being strictly true. A true boundary line is not a line which this or that explorer or geographer lays down on a map, nor a line including such and such settlements mentioned by missionaries and priests, but a line delimited by somebody who has *power* to fix it. Until such a line is fixed by authority there is really no boundary whatever. This is true of all boundaries, even under municipal law. When two settlers in the West have a dispute over the line between their respective quarter-sections, they call in the assistance, not merely of a historian or a geographer, but of a court of justice, which not only marks out the line, but makes each party keep on his own side of it for the future. It is still more true of a boundary line between two nations running through an unexplored wilderness, because here there is no court of justice to appeal to, and the question is generally in great measure a question of actual occupation. Where no such line has been surveyed or fixed by proper authority, what is wanted is some authority to fix it. Occupation is marked by no visible line, and, what is more, does not remain the same from year to year. Moreover, occupation is a vague and elastic term, which means much under one set of circumstances and little under another. The occupation of the Essequibo valley may mean the banks of the river or its whole watershed. Which is "true"? One or the other, according as it is decided by competent authority, with power to enforce its decision. Consequently, for the commission to report that the "true" line was so and so would be to report an absurdity. No true divisional line was ever ascertained until it was adopted by authority, with a view to binding both parties. That is what makes a boundary. The commission by drawing a line would only add a new opinion to dispute about.

The collapse of the *Recorder* after nearly six years of desperate struggling to gain a foothold is one more lesson in journalism that silliness, vulgarity, crime, and filth are not an adequate basis upon which to construct a successful newspaper. There have been many experiments of this kind made in this city during the past ten or twenty years, and all of them have failed, costing their projectors many thousands of dollars. John Kelly's *Star* ran through the bank accounts of several millionaires, changing its name with each new owner, never getting on a paying basis, and during its varied career, which we believe is not yet ended, has been the means of sinking several millions of dollars. It was in all its different forms "spicy," "newsy," "brainy"; which means that it was silly and more or less vulgar all the time. The *Recorder* was projected and edited on the same plan. Its leading idea was that the people as a whole were too much interested in scandal, crime, tittle-tattle, and twaddle to care for anything else, and that a newspaper given over entirely to this sort of "news" would have a roaring success. All the leading lights of this style of journalism, the "inimitable" producers of sidewalk and barroom gossip, the "Strollers" and "Loungers," were retained, and they poured forth a wonderful flood of their "best work." All sorts of inducements were offered to buy the paper—coupons, colored supplements, chromos, and trips across the continent and around the world. Crime and scandal and twaddle were served up as they had never been served before, but, in spite of all these attractions, the public did not respond. The expenses steadily exceeded the receipts; one millionaire after another, now a steamboat proprietor, now a tobacco manufacturer, now a silver-mine owner, took his turn at paying the bills, but it was the same story with all. After dropping a good many thousands, each grew tired of the business, and when there were no more millionaires to be found, the paper went into the hands of the sheriff and soon ceased to appear.

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The necessity under which Temple Houston, the son of the famous Gen. Houston, found himself of killing Judge Jennings in Oklahoma Territory on Friday is regrettable, but it is still a necessity. Having killed Judge Jennings's son a year ago, Temple naturally felt that he ought, within a reasonable time, to kill the father, too, on proper provocation. Judge Jennings is "an Iowa jurist." The provocation he gave Houston is not often given by jurists in the older parts of the world, but every locality has its customs and needs. He met Houston's little son coming home from school, and the little fellow spoke to him, whereupon the Judge did the only thing a jurist could do under the circumstances, he spat in his face. The penalty for spitting

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in children's faces in Oklahoma is, it appears, death, which seems to us unduly severe, and it fell to the lot of Temple to execute it. So he "buckled on his gun" and sought the Judge, not in his library or in a courtroom, but in a bar-room, and shot him dead. Temple's hair, we understand, is long, he is a fine shot, and one of the finest Bryanite speakers in the West. He is hostile to the Supreme Court, the money power, and the punctual payment of debts in these times. He is now "in the hands of the authorities." What the authorities will do with him remains to be seen, but they will hardly dispute the propriety of Temple's action. Suppose Iowa jurists could with impunity spit in our children's faces as they returned from school, where should we be? There may be discussion as to the necessity of inflicting the death penalty for such offences, but the Jennings family appears to be an unusually depraved race, for Temple has already had, as we have seen, to kill Jennings the son.

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The Hawaiian plank in the Republican platform, declaring simply for American "control" in the islands, was a great disappointment to the annexationists now in power there. They had hoped for better things, after the Republican ardor for annexation in 1893. But they are now greatly cheered by an interpretation of the plank which they have got from Joe Manley, and which leads them to hope that they have not lied and cheated in vain. The Honolulu *Advertiser* publishes with great display, and in facsimile, a letter which it had received from Augusta, Me., and which runs as follows:

> "Have just returned from Joe Manley's office. He informs me emphatically and without equivocation that that Hawaiian plank was Harrison's—just what he advocated while President, and just what the Republican party really believes in—annexation pure and simple. It was Harrison's idea and the party's idea, and they mean it. If McKinley is elected, that's what will result. Joe was very earnest about it."

Joe was very earnest about a great many other things connected with the St. Louis convention, but his earnestness did not seem to count. His assurance that the weak Hawaiian plank was Harrison's seems very dubious. Mr. Harrison was not a great power at St. Louis. His Administration was endorsed there only as a sort of pitying afterthought. Moreover, would the fearless Harrison say "control" when he meant annexation? That would look perilously like trying to deceive all the people all the time, which we know, from having been so assured by reputable orators, is impossible. We have no doubt that the Maine sympathizers with the Hawaiian adventurers are still of a mind to strike hands with them for mutual benefit. We have no doubt that much other rascality and jobbery is being plotted by some of our most eminent saviours of the country. The election of 1892 foisted an awful lot of rascals on us, and we expect to get an equally fine assortment this year. But we think the country (and even politicians) has learned something about the unwisdom of surrendering to them.

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The process of "explaining it" to the English has been extremely arduous in this campaign. Ignorance for ignorance, American innocence in regard to English politics is doubtless able to hold its own with anything that foreigners can produce; but we do think that Americans are not quite so solemn as Englishmen, or quite so credulous, in seeking or accepting light in their darkness. The rubbishy and misinformed letters on the situation which the London *Times* has published can be accounted for only on the supposition that, as Pascal's Jesuit maintained that *any* opinion of a Father must be valuable, the *Times* was convinced that any writer signing himself "An American" must be wise, accurate, and bursting with confidential information. The *Spectator* has, as usual, led all the other owls in sage blinking over American politics. At the beginning, it saw in Bryanism a new crusade, touched with supernal light, and discovered the profoundest religious sentiment in the Western farmers who were going to spend their last cent in order to avoid paying their debts. About Bryan himself it knew little, but was sure from a study of his jaw and shoulders that he was just the man to do Apocalyptic things. Later on it seemed to discover that the crusade was petering out, as it were, but still thought that Bryan would be elected if he could carry New York and Pennsylvania. It admitted, in the best style of *Spectator* superiority, that all the American despatches represented New York as absolutely certain to go for McKinley, but that was before the New York Democracy had endorsed Bryan, which, of course, changed the situation entirely. The Vermont and Maine elections meant nothing, for in November the honest-money Democrats would be "compelled" to vote for Gen. Palmer, and so Bryan and McKinley would be left "face to face," which was an awful thing to contemplate.

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Nine months ago the first news of the Armenian massacres had just reached this country, and it was the confident expectation of most people that the Powers would find the means of preventing a repetition of these horrors. The Jingoes in Congress were just then "on the rampage" looking about for a war, and were ready to fight England for not fighting Turkey. We pointed out then the absurdity of any action alone, or any armed meddling on our part, although much American property had been destroyed and much American terror caused, inasmuch as the case was in what we considered competent hands. We preferred our bill of damages to the Porte; it was politely received and payment promised. It has never been paid. The massacres, far from ceasing, after the first wild outburst, have continued in all parts of the empire, ending quite recently in Constantinople, on a considerable scale. It is calculated that 100,000 men, women, and children have been butchered in cold blood during the past year—a very large proportion (there is abundant proof for this) by the instigation or "instructions" of the Sultan himself. Nothing like this has occurred in history. The present Sultan has outdone all the slaughters of the most slaughtering and cruel ages. The Powers have not restrained him up to this moment, and Lord Rosebery has just announced his opinion that interference on the part of England might cause her total destruction. Now the massacres of the last nine months and the great destruction of property have enormously increased the amounts due by the Sultan to other people. They have rendered it less and less likely that he will ever be able to pay us. We do not know whether anything, and if so what, has been said or done to remind him of his obligations to us, but surely something strong and trenchant ought to be said. If he were an honest man struggling with difficulties not of his own creation, we should owe him forbearance. But where there is steady nine months' persistency in the very crimes which created his debt to us, and when every hour renders it less likely he will ever pay us a cent, what do we owe him?

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That free silver is in this country logically and historically the child of protection there is a great weight of evidence to show. Its lineage in Europe is not, perhaps, so easy to trace, but the recent congress at Budapest, where the agricultural section was almost wholly given over to bimetallic talk, was highly significant of the way things have gone. The protection nostrum has failed, and the bimetallic panacea is now making the running. The very men who a few years ago were calling for duties on foreign imports as the cure of all their woes, are now for bimetallism. The other quack medicine was shown to be worthless, but this one will infallibly go to the spot. Luckily the agrarian bimetallists at Budapest did not have everything their own way. They had to listen to a masterly address by M. Levasseur, in which, after upsetting their alleged facts and demolishing their arguments, he told them flatly that an international agreement was the idlest of idle dreams. He affirmed that there was not the slightest reason to hope that Austria or Germany or the Scandinavian countries would ever retrace their steps away from silver. As for England, said M. Levasseur in a happy phrase, she will never regard bimetallism as anything except "an article for export, not for home consumption."

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*THE GRAVITY OF THE CRISIS.*

ARCHBISHOP IRELAND, one of the most distinguished prelates of the Roman Catholic Church, has been moved by his sense of duty as a citizen of a self-governing country to address a few words to his fellow-citizens on the present crisis in political affairs. He considers the existence of free government threatened by the Bryan movement. He concludes his address with these words:

"I may of course be mistaken. But I have come to look upon the present agitation as the great test of universal suffrage and popular sovereignty. Can the people defend public honor and the institutions of the country at the polls, as they have done on the field of battle? Can they be so calm and deliberate in their judgment, so careful to weigh all things in the scale of reason, and to avoid all rash experiments, that they can be trusted with the settlement of grave social and political problems? That is the question that is before us at the present moment."

Archbishop Ireland has here uttered the thoughts of a very large majority of the educated classes in the United States. Why is the present crisis so grave? It is not merely because a panic and a vast deal of business trouble would ensue from a change in the standard of value. It is not because many people would lose money, and social disorder would ensue, from the disturbance of wages and contracts. A remedy can be found for all these things in time. We have had business disturbances before, and yet we pulled through to a brighter day because we all had confidence in our institutions. But the case now is vastly different from any other crisis in our history. It involves the nation's good faith, without which the motive power that impels the whole machinery is gone. A republic cannot perform its work after it has forfeited the respect of its citizens. The sense of honor is absolutely necessary to its life, because it has no other reliance in times of danger than the devotion of its citizens. Strip it of this and it falls at the first shock.

Now the issue which presents itself to the mind of Archbishop Ireland and of nearly all persons of intelligence is this: whether a country that repudiates its debts in whole or in part can ever again command the devotion of honest men. This is the most serious question that has ever been put before the people, not excepting that which involved us in war thirty-five years ago. At that time the republic could and did command the unreserved devotion of its citizens. They were willing to pour out blood and treasure to any extent in the service of their country, because they loved and honored it; because it represented everything that makes citizenship precious and life worth living. But a country that repudiates its debts—what claim can it have on the affection of any self-respecting soul?

Some people say: "Why not give silver a trial? If it does not work well, we can go back to gold." If the matter could be so easily disposed of—if it were a mere question of expediency and of losing dollars more or less—we could look forward lightly to the election of Bryan. We have faced other campaigns in which feelings were powerfully enlisted, and in which it seemed to some of us as if an adverse result could not easily be borne, but we have never seen one where a false step was so void of remedy and recall. The election of Mr. Bryan is a step that can never be recalled, because it is a lapse from virtue. Undoubtedly we could go back after much tribulation to the gold standard if silver did not work well, but in the meantime we should have repudiated both public and private debts to an extent beyond the possibility of restitution. We should have produced a new state of affairs, political and financial, the most deplorable feature of which would be the encouragement of rogues and the despair of honest men. To talk about retracing such a step is like attempting to put new life into a corpse.

Instead of going back to the gold standard if silver should not "work well," the course of things would be altogether in the opposite direction. The Bryanites would say that the trouble was a lack of money, that silver was too costly and too slow of production. Mr. Bryan himself would lead the way to a more rapid issue of the circulating medium. In fact, he is already committed to the issue of new greenbacks for the building of public works. It is a very short step from this kind of an issue to the Ocala platform, the "sub-treasury plan," and everything that Coxey's army requires to make money plenty. This would be the natural and inevitable outcome, because there would no longer be any resisting force. Those who have hitherto held the Government in the path of honor would despair of making any successful resistance to the down-hill course. Those who could leave the country would do so. Others would possess themselves of real estate or anything that would probably survive the crash, speculators would thrive, and the poor would be pinched worse than ever because they would not know which way to turn to avoid the miseries of a depreciating dollar. In the end we should be where the French republic was when the assignats became worthless, and the people would turn gratefully to any strong man who should offer them security in return for liberty. We should go back to the gold standard at last, but the pathway would lie over the ruins of a republic.

*SOUTHERN SIGNS OF THE TIMES.*

THE last State elections to occur before the voting for President next month were those which took place in Florida on October 6 and in Georgia on October 7. The result was in each case precisely what had been expected—the success of the Democrats by a good majority over the opposition, which in Georgia was united upon the Populist ticket, and in Florida was divided between the nominees of the Republican and the Populist parties.

No such significance attaches to the size of the Democratic majority in either State as to the size of the Republican majorities in Vermont and Maine last month, for the reason that no proper basis of comparison with results in previous years exists. In the last election of Governor in Florida, four years ago this month, the Republicans ran no ticket, nor were any Harrison electors in the field the following month. In the Georgia State election four years ago, as this year, the only opposition ticket was that of the Populists, but nobody can tell what proportion of Republicans supported that ticket in either year. It is an utter waste of time and space, therefore, to speculate as to the bearing of the Democratic majority in either Florida or Georgia upon the condition of public sentiment regarding Bryanism.

In each State, however, the canvass exhibited features which deserve attention as signs of the times. The admission is freely made by the white Republican leaders in Georgia that, although they sent out orders for the members of their party to support the Populist ticket, a large proportion of the negroes voted for Gov. Atkinson, the Democrat who was running for reëlection. W. A. Pledger, the most prominent colored politician in the State, and many other leaders of the race openly advocated the Governor's reelection, on the ground that his administration had been excellent and that his treatment of the negroes had been all that could be asked. Col. A. E. Buck, the white Republican boss, who appealed for support of the Populist ticket, based his argument chiefly on the claim that "defeat of the Democratic State ticket would discourage their party throughout the country and greatly aid in carrying the North and West for McKinley." Of Gov. Atkinson he says:

"I do not pretend to criticise Gov. Atkinson or any member of the Democratic State Administration in the slightest degree. The Governor has made an able, honest, and impartial executive, and we can say nothing against him on account of any act or any policy. Pledger and his associates, who are working so diligently for Gov. Atkinson, are too honest and sincere in their positions to be distracted. They conscientiously believe that Gov. Atkinson is the best friend to their race that has been raised up since Abraham Lincoln, and nothing that I could do or say would cause them to desert his cause."

Throughout the State the white politicians sought the support of the black voters, and each faction was ready to fight to secure an honest count of the negro votes which it secured. Although some complaints of fraud are made against both the Democrats and the Populists, in counties which they respectively controlled, there is no doubt that the election showed a nearer approach to fairness than any previous one. It was held under a law which, for the first time,

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required registration, and in a large proportion of the counties the dominant element voluntarily granted the other representation among the election officials. Public sentiment is now calling for action by the new Legislature to make a division of election managers between the parties compulsory.

The Florida election was the first one held under the Australian ballot law. The fact should not escape notice that the adoption of this system in that State, and the passage of the registration law in Georgia, are steps toward securing honest elections which have been taken since the repeal of the federal election laws. The national Government accomplished nothing by all its efforts in this direction except to establish the race line in politics and to solidify the whites. No sooner, however, had the national election laws been repealed and the fear of a force bill vanished, than the whites began to divide among themselves, and each element to seek support among the blacks, while both insisted upon an honest count of the votes thus secured.

One feature of the Florida election, which is barely mentioned at the end of most dispatches, and will make no impression on the mind of the average reader because he does not understand it, is really of the first importance. It is the statement that the constitutional amendment changing the time of State elections was ratified by an overwhelming majority. Formerly State elections were held in November. In 1888 Harrison and a Republican Congress were elected on a platform which threatened the passage of a force bill. The Florida Legislature thereupon, in 1889, voted to submit to the people an amendment to the Constitution changing the time of the State election to October, so as to escape the presence of federal officials at the polls. This amendment was considered by the voters in November, 1890, after the force bill had passed the House, and was ratified by 14,121 yeas to 7,511 nays. Early in 1894 Congress rejected the federal election laws. The Florida Legislature chosen the next autumn decided to submit an amendment changing the time of State elections back to November, and the proposition was endorsed by the voters on Tuesday week almost without opposition. The consolidation of elections was always advisable on grounds of convenience and economy; but so long as federal interference was feared, the people gladly took the trouble and stood the cost of an otherwise unnecessary election. They now recognize that the last fear of such interference has vanished.

These are the real lessons of the Florida and Georgia elections, and they are full of encouragement. They show that the tendency of things at the South is setting strongly in the direction of fairer elections and a more normal division of the voters, white and black alike, than have been seen since the negroes were enfranchised.

## *THE RESIGNATION OF LORD ROSEBERY.*

Lord Rosebery's retirement from the position of Liberal leader ought really to have occurred when the party was turned out of power in 1895. His assumption of the place was said originally to be due to Mr. Gladstone, and one of the best arguments in its favor was that there was no one else for it. During Mr. Gladstone's administration, Lord Rosebery had acted as Foreign Secretary, and the idea had somehow sprung up, not only among the Liberals, but among the Conservatives, that he was a peculiarly "safe" man. Moreover, he was a peer and very rich, and his presence in the Administration was reassuring to a great many people who had grown afraid of the Radicals and the Irish. To put him, therefore, at the head of the Ministry when Mr. Gladstone went out, seemed a good stroke of policy. It did not turn out so, for various reasons. One was that the change from a very serious Prime Minister, who wrote on the Scriptures and a future life, to a young man of fashion, who raced horses, was too sudden, especially for as sober-minded a constituency as the Liberal party is. More than this, Lord Rosebery was not serious for his kind. He was the Melbourne or Palmerston type of minister, who did not think anything mattered very much, and was not very sure of any of his convictions. His last speech before the election in 1895 was, it is true, not jocular, but it was plaintive and apologetic, which is never the tone for a leader to take.

Worse than all, his right to lead at all was disputed by the strongest man the Liberals had, after Mr. Gladstone, namely, Sir William Harcourt. Sir William believed himself entitled to the succession, and he was entitled to it if powerful debating and skilful legislation in the House of Commons could give any claim. He was the ablest debater the Liberals had, and was a very successful second to Mr. Gladstone. But his manners were unpopular, and his continued fidelity to the Liberal party had undergone some sort of eclipse in 1874, and he was on very bad terms with the press. He accordingly continued to lead the House of Commons, but not the party, but his relations with Lord Rosebery were said to be decidedly acrimonious. He was met by Lord Rosebery with a politeness and good humor which ought to have disarmed him, but it did not. While Lord Rosebery was enjoying a sort of gilded leisure in the House of Lords, Sir William was bearing the brunt of the battle in the House of Commons, and throwing some sunset glory over the last hours of the Liberal party by such exceedingly difficult measures as the death-duties act, which, much as the Tories denounced it, they have not ventured to repeal. When the party went out of office, in fact, Harcourt was the man to whom more than any other except Mr. Gladstone the party was indebted. His fame and credit have been added to greatly by his leadership in opposition, which has been both judicious and powerful.

It is but fair to Lord Rosebery to say that the lesson of the crisis is rather that none but a very powerful and influential man like Lord Salisbury should venture to lead the Liberal party from the House of Lords, than that he himself is not competent. In this house it is very difficult for any man to make a figure, or keep himself before the public eye, or exhibit his best qualities. He must, therefore, be a man who, independently of these things, already occupies such a commanding position in his party as Lord Salisbury does. If he has still any reputation to make, the House of Lords is not the place to make it. But in this difficult position Lord Rosebery was placed; he had to show himself worthy of his office there, being, in fact, rather a "rising hope" of the Liberals, as Macaulay once said Mr. Gladstone was of the "stern and unbending Tories," than a tried leader. Nobody knew what kind of leader he would make, but the chances seemed to be in his favor. Moreover, he has the misfortune to find himself for the second time in opposition to, or out of sympathy with, his party on an exciting question. His sincere adhesion to Irish home rule was always a little doubtful, and now he finds he cannot agree with the bulk of the party and with Mr. Gladstone about the course the nation should take touching the Turkish atrocities. The reappearance of Mr. Gladstone, armed and equipped, is the most extraordinary incident of the crisis, and furnishes Lord Rosebery with a graceful and comfortable reason for quitting the scene.

What will happen next, it is hard to say. There are three men in the House of Commons of any one of whom it might be said that he is worthy to lead the party —Sir William Harcourt, Mr. Morley, and Mr. Asquith. Sir William Harcourt is already in the place, as far as the House of Commons is concerned. Out of doors, with the country, Mr. Morley carries more weight, owing to his character, while Mr. Asquith, though a powerful debater, is not so well known. There will be, and there need be, no haste in filling Lord Rosebery's place.

## *THE VAGARIES OF LITERARY FAME.*

Mr. Du Maurier's rather pitiful death, which has left everybody a little sad, will bring to many, with its record of the years he had run, fresh wonder at the extraordinary literary success he won so late in life. To have first turned his hand to fiction when he was well past fifty, and to have produced one of the

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most deservedly popular novels of the century when he was fifty-nine, is alone enough to give him a peculiar place in literary annals. At first sight his career seems to make the art of novel-writing appear a little ridiculous. Here were Hardy and Black and Besant and Hall Caine, here were Howells and James, serving a long apprenticeship and perfecting their art in book after book, when along came this impetuous and unpractised youth of fifty-nine and laid them all flat on their backs. What should we think of the art of fencing if an inexperienced cadet could thus lay low a lot of *vieux sabreurs?* And will any man maintain, after Du Maurier, that training and long years of experiment in the writing of fiction go for anything beside the happy chance which, after all, is the secret of literary fame?

It must be admitted that the fame of a writer is essentially a mysterious thing. The best proof of this is that writers who become famous, so often wake up and find themselves so, much to their own surprise. No one, in fact, is so poor a judge and prophet concerning his own writings as the author himself. Goethe had his doubts whether 'Faust' would prove antiseptic against the decay of time, but was absolutely certain that he should be immortal on account of his theory of light, which all modern physicists consider a series of hopeless blunders. Southey thought that he had taken a bond of fate with those portentous poems of his which nobody can read, and never suspected that his literary reputation would rest so largely upon the despised historical and biographical work he did. But there is literally no end to the self-deceptions of authors in this kind. Montaigne reproaches Cicero for thinking his poems worth preserving, and, in our own day, we have seen the philosophic Lecky gravely make a bid for fame with a volume of wooden verse.

If writers themselves, brooding on things to come, go so far astray, they are no more out than are the publishers and the critics. Men bred to the business of picking the winner in the great literary handicap, go as egregiously wrong as the veriest gaping rustic risking his dollar. There is no wisdom which can say in advance, "This book will sell 50,000 copies. This writer will make a fortune." It is not only the Miltons and the Cervantes who hawk their wares about, and find publishers refusing the immortality thrust upon them. Mr. Barrie, to take a current instance, records with a certain pathetic satisfaction that the Scotch sketches which have made his reputation were rejected by *all* the magazines—or, at least, if there was any editor to whom he did not offer them, he cannot remember it now. All this is an old story. Such experiences, marking almost every page of the history of book-publishing, taken together with such unforeseeable successes as Du Maurier's, certainly give color to the pessimistic view that literature is a lottery, and that fame is only another way of spelling luck.

But without professing to be wise above all our contemporaries, and without denying that a great reputation in literature, as in many other fields, is often mysteriously won, we venture to say that there was nothing whatever of the happy-go-lucky about Mr. Du Maurier's success. There is not the slightest encouragement in his example for any reader of these columns who, at the age of fifty-nine (or any other nine), may feel like saying to himself, "Go to, I also will write a novel and get much gain." There are apprenticeships and apprenticeships, and Du Maurier had served one of the very best of them for many years, if all unconsciously. He had made it his life business to observe—to observe and interpret human beings. By the time it first occurred to him to try his hand at writing, he had accumulated a vast store of material and had done it in the best possible way. That is to say, he had not made a lot of dry, Zolaesque notes on men and things for the specific purpose of cataloguing them in a book that would read like an inventory, but had made a wide experiment of life, and kept his impressions in that fine compartment of the imagination where they become softened and clarified with time, and so best fitted for artistic use. He was thus no mere romancer when he began, no light-hearted gentleman sallying forth with "facetious and rejoicing ignorance," as Lockhart said of the Edinburgh Reviewers, but one of those fortunate men whose whole life had been unconsciously fitting them for the great stroke when the great opportunity came.

Nor has it been sufficiently noted how, in the mere craftsman's part of writing, he had really had the happiest training. The little legends under his caricatures are often as artistic as the pictures they go with. Crisp phrase and dramatic retort and gentle humor were the things required here, and they are the things that mark his later writing, the style of which he had all along been unwittingly forging. Then think what his life-long association with artists and wits must have meant to him in the way of acute perception and the ready word to convey it. His life was really all of a piece, in these aspects, as one may see from the delightful glimpses given of him in his Bohemian days by Felix Moscheles.

When we add that Du Maurier was an unsparing worker, not trusting to lucky flashes so much as to patient and dogged labor, we have gone far towards making his literary fame much less mysterious than many would like to think it. He is perhaps as good an illustration as we have recently had of Dr. Johnson's definition of genius as great natural powers accidentally turned in a certain direction. His powers were turned first to art and then to literature, but they were the same powers, and their product was alike in both departments. The moral for literary workers to draw from his life is not that literary fame is purely a gambling affair, but that it depends upon knowing something better than anybody else and conveying it to the public more attractively than anybody else.

## "THE GROWING ILLITERACY OF AMERICAN BOYS."

THE Committee of the Overseers of Harvard College on Composition and Rhetoric last year very severely criticised the examination papers of the entering class, as indeed they had done three years before, and published specimens of them which were admitted on all hands to be deplorable. This was done on the ground that students came up from the leading preparatory schools in such a condition of unfitness, as regards their own tongue, that it was necessary for the college to spend much time, energy, and money in teaching them what they ought to have learnt already. To use Prof. Goodwin's language on this subject, "There was no conceivable justification for using the revenues of Harvard College or the time and strength of her instructors in a vain attempt to enlighten the Egyptian darkness in which no small portion of her undergraduates were sitting."

This report naturally excited a good deal of dissatisfaction among the schoolmasters, which has been much increased by the proposal of the Committee to print this year the papers of all the candidates presenting themselves for admission to college from particular schools or academies—the Boston Latin School, for instance, and Mr. Noble's, and Messrs. Brown & Nichols', and the Roxbury Latin—thus at once bringing into contrast the methods pursued and the results achieved in those schools.

The principals of these schools have accordingly filed the following protest with the Board of Overseers:

"We, the principals of the schools named in this report, wish to protest against the action proposed therein, for two reasons:

"(1.) Such a comparison as is suggested, of papers of candidates from specified schools, would establish a dangerous precedent, and is a new departure for Harvard College, which has been scrupulously careful in the past to treat all fitting-schools alike.

"(2.) We contend that sight translations from Latin, Greek, French, or German made in a limited time, under a great nervous strain, are not evidence of a candidate's general ability or inability to write good English.

"While we regret the growing illiteracy of American boys as much as your committee does, we cannot feel that the schools should be held solely responsible for evils which are chiefly due to the absence of literary interest and of literary standards in the community.

"No school shuns a discussion of plans and methods of teaching or a comparison of results achieved, but no school is willing to carry such discussion and comparisons before the general public, which, from the nature of the case, cannot appreciate the true value of the evidence submitted, and must therefore draw false inferences.

"If your committee wishes for the sake of the common good to examine the methods pursued and the results achieved in our schools

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under existing conditions, it is welcome to make a most thorough examination, and we promise it our cordial assistance, with full liberty to make any proper use of the results of its investigation."

This protest was referred back by the Board of Overseers to the Committee on Composition, who have reported on it to the Board. The report sets forth that the object in proposing the publication of the examination papers was not to make an invidious distinction between schools, but, by a comparison of the methods pursued in a few of the best schools, to get, if possible, some suggestion as to the improvement of the whole system. But this is a minor matter. What is most serious in the protest is the teachers'- way of accounting for the deficiencies of their pupils, and their objection to the public display of the result of the tests to which they are submitted.

The signers object to the publication of the examination papers on the ground that the public is not competent to judge them. The public in this case, of course, means mainly graduates of colleges, parents of graduates, and generally persons interested in the subject of education. It is only these who would be likely to pay any attention to the papers. If it be true that this class cannot form an intelligent opinion as to the manner in which their sons and other relatives are taught to write and speak their own language; if the choice of methods and the estimate of results must be left entirely to the teachers themselves, the matter is indeed very grave. It would place these gentlemen in a much better position than any other profession in the community. Every other practitioner is judged by the results of his work—the lawyer by the results of his advice and conduct of cases, the doctor by the effect of his practice on his patients, and the minister by his influence on sinners. In no case is it left to him to say whether he has succeeded or not, though his art may be much more obscure and technical than the teaching of English.

The reasons why the teachers are not to be held responsible are, however, graver than the fact of non-responsibility. They say they cannot prepare the boys in the use of their mother tongue because of the "growing illiteracy of American boys," and they ascribe this again to "the absence of literary interests and of literary standards in the community." The way of accounting for evils, and relieving individuals from blame for them, by ascribing them to general causes, is a very old one. In the early days of the civil-service agitation there was a very widespread opposition to the passage of any civil-service law, on the ground that civil-service reform must be accomplished by "the slow uplifting of human nature." The same agency was to be relied upon for the abolition of slavery. In fact, nearly every abuse has at some time in its history been defended in the same way. If it be true that "illiteracy is growing among American boys," and there is "an absence of literary standards and interests in the community," the remedy would seem to lie in greater efficiency and energy on the part of the institutions which are specially charged with the duty of combating illiteracy among youth. It would seem as if the preparation of the schools should be made sterner than ever, and the standards of the college higher than ever, so that everybody who meant to go to college should, from the time he put off petticoats, have in his mind the fact that not good athletics but good English was essential to his getting into college at all and having "a good time" while he was there.

Moreover, publicity is the great modern remedy and stimulant, and if this evil be as great as the schoolmasters say, it seems to us that publicity should be made to help us in its extinction. Schools should be made ashamed of their boys, and boys made ashamed of their English, by asking all men to listen to them. It is in this way that the best results are obtained in all walks of life. We should think ambitious schoolmasters whom the English of their pupils shocks would welcome it. We do not believe that any agencies can do as much for reform as exposure. As long as boys and their parents remain under the impression that English is of secondary importance in school and college, and that defects in it will be carefully covered with the veil of secrecy or anonymity, so long will the illiteracy of American youth continue to increase, composition continue to be ungrammatical and ill-spelt, letters ill-written and ignorant, handwriting scratchy and uneducated. It appears to be now acknowledged by the schools themselves that they are unable to deal with the emergency. They appear by their own admission to be baffled by the negligence of the boys and the indifference of the parents and guardians. Is it not time that some new plan were tried? It has long been notorious that teachers of English in America were much hindered by bad habits of speech at home. Ought they to protest against having the public called to their assistance?

## FRENCH CANADIANS IN MAINE.

BRUNSWICK, Me., September, 1896.

IN the annual report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor for 1881, Mr. Carroll D. Wright, then chief of the bureau, in summarizing the results of an investigation of the attitude of employers and employees in New England and New York towards the ten-hour day, said:

"The third objection to ten hours is the presence of the Canadian French. Wherever they appear, there their presence is urged as a reason why the hours of labor should not be reduced to ten. The reasons for this urgency are not far to find. With some exceptions the Canadian French are the Chinese of the Eastern States. They care nothing for our institutions, civil, political, or educational. They do not come to make a home among us, to dwell with us as citizens, and so become a part of us; but their purpose is merely to sojourn a few years as aliens, touching us only at a single point, that of work, and, when they have gathered out of us what will satisfy their ends, to get them away to whence they came, and bestow it there. They are a horde of industrial invaders, not a stream of stable settlers. Voting, with all that it implies, they care nothing about. Rarely does one of them become naturalized. They will not send their children to school if they can help it, but endeavor to crowd them into the mills at the earliest possible age. To do this they deceive about the age of their children with brazen effrontery." [They have] "one good trait. They are indefatigable workers, and docile. . . . To earn all they can, by no matter how many hours of toil, to live in the most beggarly way so that out of their earnings they may spend as little for living as possible, and to carry out of the country what they can thus save: this is the aim of the Canadian French in our factory districts."

While, as was said, the language of the report did not profess to be anything but a summary of the testimony taken by the Bureau, its sweeping assertions met, as the report for 1882 says, "the earnest and patriotic condemnation of the Canadian French of New England." Whether the statements of the report were justified or not is not the object of the present inquiry; it can hardly be doubted, however, that views very similar to those there expressed are still, after a lapse of fifteen years, widely held in different parts of New England. I have recently had occasion to note the extent to which such a characterization, if made to-day, would have any application to the French Canadians in Maine.

Although the French Canadians are by far the most numerous class of foreigners in Maine, no authoritative statistics of their number and condition are, so far as I am aware, available. The national Government does not keep separate records of the immigration from Canada, nor are the returns to be found in the census of 1890; reliance must be had, therefore, on unofficial publications and private inquiry. According to the *Guide Français de la Nouvelle-Angleterre* for 1891, there were at that time in Maine 52,986 French Canadians; and while this figure is probably not the result of actual enumeration, it is no doubt accurate enough for practical purposes. The French population has increased somewhat since 1891, though not so rapidly as in previous years. A conservative estimate would place the present number at not far from 55,000. About half of these are found in six manufacturing centres. Biddeford and Saco have, in round numbers, about 11,000; Lewiston and Auburn, 11,000; Waterville, 3,500; and Brunswick 2,500. Probably 10,000 are settled in the extreme northern and western parts of the State, in the region along the Canada line; the rest are, for the most part, scattered, a few hundred in a place, among the larger towns and cities. It is at once apparent that the distribution of the French is by no means even—they are massed at a few points, and, as a rule, are not found in any numbers in the seacoast towns. The *Guide Français*, already quoted, gives a list of but thirty-three places in Maine in which there was an appreciable French population in 1891.

The stream of French immigration that for many years has flowed into Maine shows a continual, but not steady, increase, with at times a noticeable return movement. Nearness to the Province of Quebec has favored immigration, while the slower industrial development of the State, as compared with some other parts of New England, has pre-

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vented the influx from reaching at any time very large proportions. Since the passage of the national law prohibiting the importation of contract laborers, the French have ceased to come in parties under the influence of agents of manufacturing corporations, the impelling motives now being rather the meagreness of opportunity at home and the reported success and satisfaction of relatives and friends already here. What gives the movement its irregular character is partly, I think, the especial sensitiveness of the French to changes in business conditions. As a class they are little disposed to wait, and a period of business depression, with its usual accompaniments of lower wages and lessened employment, is pretty certain to turn the tide and send considerable numbers of them back to Canada until the return of better times. Even at its height, however, the French "invasion" of Maine is plainly on a very moderate scale; the highest estimate does not give the French element 10 per cent. of the population of the State.

There are two points at which the French Canadians come into vital touch with an American community. One is as laborers, the other as citizens and voters. In neither of these aspects is the attitude of the French in Maine what it was formerly. Fifteen or twenty years ago they could have been not inaptly dubbed "the Chinese of the East"; to day any such epithet would be neither fitting nor just. That the presence of a large and growing number of French in the manufacturing centres tends to overstock the "labor market" and keep down the general level of wages seems probable, though inquiry has disclosed no unanimity of opinion on this point; it seems clear, however, that the influence in this direction is no longer so great as it used to be. It has to be remembered that the Frenchman almost invariably arrives here poor, often penniless; he comes from a farm, knows nothing of any other employment, and speaks no language save the barbarous Canadian French; he must have work at once, and is usually glad at first to take any wages offered him. So long as this class was in the majority, "cheap labor" and its attendant evils prevailed. But the class of skilled, or at least somewhat practised, laborers is now very considerable, and is increasing faster than the new arrivals of the unskilled; the result is a steadying of the labor supply, a greater diversity of occupations, a disposition to demand higher wages, and a willingness to strike. The passage and general enforcement of laws restricting the employment of children in factories have removed one of the worst causes of disturbance; and while everywhere in Maine the French are the predominant operative class, they are, as a rule, well paid, they have profited largely by labor legislation, and commend themselves to their employers by the quickness with which they learn, as well as by their industry and docility.

As regards permanent residence and citizenship, there can no longer be any question but that the French are in Maine to stay. Years ago, when the first parties of immigrants arrived, it was almost always with the intention of remaining only temporarily, earning as much money as possible, and returning to Canada in the near future; and this intention was for many years carried out. Thousands of dollars earned in Maine were expended upon Canadian farms, and many of the French themselves returned, as years went by, to their old homes. But as the French population increased with better wages and more certain employment, and as children born here grew to be themselves wage earners, American life came to seem more and more attractive, until at the present time it is practically only the older people, and by no means all of them, who cherish the hope of an ultimate return to their native land; for a rapidly growing number of the younger people, the native land is not Canada, but the United States. At the two points at which this inclination to permanent residence chiefly manifests itself, namely, property-holding and voting, I have again failed to obtain adequate statistics, but estimates avowedly conservative show some rather striking results. The number of French-Canadian voters in Maine must now run into the thousands, and the rate of increase is more rapid than at any previous time. There are between three and four thousand owners of real estate, with property valued at not far from $2 500.000; and the number of property-holders is also increasing. Much the larger part of this real estate is residence property. Figures such as these, imperfect and general as they are, are hardly found among an alien people who care nothing for American institutions and hold themselves obstinately aloof from American life; for even the most ignorant Frenchman knows that neither citizenship nor the ownership of property adds very much to his wage-earning power. To be sure, large sums of money are still sent to Canada regularly, as will doubtless be the case for many years to come; on the other hand, larger and larger sums are retained for expenditure in the communities where they have been earned.

While, however, these indications point unmistakably to the permanent residence in Maine of a large number of French Canadians, one must not exaggerate their importance, or assume a greater assimilation of American ideas than has actually taken place; for, notwithstanding the large number of naturalized citizens, native-born children, and property-owners among them, the French in Maine are still, in some material respects, aliens and foreigners. Even after English has been mastered, they retain French as the language of common life, while many of the older people know no word of English. They read French newspapers and French books. They have the clannishness of strangers in a strange land, for the most part live by themselves in a distinct section of the town or city, and prefer their own stores, their own mechanics, and their own physicians. They keep tenaciously many of their own customs, have their own clubs and social organizations, and make much of weddings, funerals, and festivals of the Church. Persons who know them well have assured me that their dwellings, even in the tenement-house districts, are remarkably clean, but I am unable to think that the casual observer would form such an impression. Marriage comes at an early age, and families are large. Intermarriage with native Americans is, however, infrequent. As regards general morality, the French do not appear to be sinners above all others; but drunkenness is the predominant curse, while petty thieving and larceny are, for some, besetting sins. In general, the French keep to themselves, associate little with people not of their own race, and, if they think of the matter at all, seem content to be thought a distinct class in the community.

This tendency to isolation, always dangerous in a foreign population, is strengthened in the case of the French Canadians by the fact that they are, almost to a man, members of one religious denomination, the Roman Catholic. The membership of a French Catholic parish in Maine is practically the same thing as the total French population of the community; in the parish of St. Peter's, Lewiston, for example, with a French population of about 11.000, I am told that there are less than fifty upon whom the Church has no hold. While large numbers of Irish immigrants in other parts of New England drift away from Church and priest, the French hold unwaveringly to the faith of their fathers. And the controlling and humanizing effect of the Catholic Church upon them is immeasurably great. The parochial schools, teaching both French and English, are largely attended, while the amount of parish work done by the priests is enormous. In all matters of general concern the influence of the Church is on the side of law and order and public progress; in labor disputes the priests have often been successful in preventing strikes and adjusting differences. It is undoubtedly the intention of the Church to keep the control it already has, and, with French priests everywhere, there is no longer much talk of "repatriation," so much discussed a few years ago. That the Church maintains so perfect a hold upon its members is no doubt due in part to the great docility of the French, as also in part to their ignorance; but no unprejudiced person, living at peace in a Maine community a large proportion of whose inhabitants are French Canadians, can, I think, fail to admit that it is to the Catholic Church, more than to any other single agency, that are to be ascribed the general good order and absence of crime.

No one who has seen much of the French Canadians in Maine can maintain that they will bear comparison in all respects with the average of native Americans; but that they are a permanent element in the population, and that they are making rapid progress in the direction of useful citizenship, is beyond question. There are discouraging and retarding influences on both sides. The French are not always faithful and reliable, they are prone to overestimate the value of their labor, they are an easy prey for the agitator and demagogue, they cling to a language which to most Americans is jargon, and they send money out of the State. On the other hand, useful and indispensable as they have become, they are nowhere received with cordiality, or commonly referred to save as an inferior class; even their religion is denounced as un-American, and the influence of the Church little regarded or else misconstrued. The law requires them to send their children to school, but the public schools offer scanty advantages to children who can neither speak English nor read French. As a class, they are treated considerately in public because of their votes, disparaged in private because of general dislike, and sought by all for the work they do and the money they spend. Yet it is plain that they are making for themselves a place, not only as factory operatives, but also as skilled laborers in many trades; here and there some hold public office, and a few French have sat in the State Legislature. In the State as a whole they are being steadily, though slowly, worked into the conglomerate that we call the American people.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

## THE OPENING OF THE DANUBE CANAL.

ORSOVA, September 27, 1896.

THIS has been a day of special rejoicing in

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Hungary. The proud Hungarians celebrate the completion of a work which will for a long time hold preëminence in the annals of engineering science—a work which interests Hungary not alone, but nearly the whole of South-Central Europe. The Danube Canal, so called, through the Iron Gate (Vas-Kapu) is a *fait accompli*, and the thought and energy which have surrounded its making for the better part of 2,000 years are fittingly sealed with the triumphant passage this morning through the new channel of the steamer *Ferencz-József*, conveying their Majesties the Emperor of Austria-Hungary and the Kings of Rumania and Servia.

The day has been a singularly beautiful one, and the drenching rains of yesterday, which fairly turned festive Orsova into a mud-hole, and amply sustained the Emperor's characterization of the weather on his arrival as *miserabel*, have left little evidence of their existence. Everything is gay and animated. Bunting streams from hundreds of poles, masts, and triumphal arches, and almost every house, whether large or small, the abode of the wealthy or the kennel of the lowliest peasant, Hungarian, Rumanian, or Servian, is decked out in colors or hung with illumination glasses. With many others who did not wish to plod through three miles of national mud and rain—there being an enormous carriage demand and but a limited service—I passed the night at the railway station and walked into Orsova in the gray of the morning. There was as yet hardly a sign of official life, and but few of the loungers on the river front seemed to know that the chief figure of the coming celebration was on board the trim steamer that bore the Emperor's name, and from which passed out a long carpeted gangway to land. In front of the *Ferencz József* lay a small monitor, and alongside were a number of other vessels that were to form part of the royal cortège.

From Orsova to the head of the canal is three miles, and the passage down is rapidly made by small passenger-steamboats, most of which (manifestly with a view of meeting the difficulties of the return journey) are constructed with four paddle-wheels. There is nothing strikingly beautiful in the scenery of this portion of the Danube. The gate of Kazan, with its almost vertical walls of rock, has been left behind, and the river opens out into a landscape with perhaps more graceful, even though less imposing, outlines. Hills of a few hundred feet elevation, here and there badly scarred by falls of rock, and covered from base to summit with that lovely forest vegetation which, almost everywhere in Europe, clings to the mountain slopes and gives to them an incomparable green, are the distinctive features of the two banks; between them the Danube rushes on in its mad course, as yellow and muddy as in the region where it has fantastically been termed the "blue Danube."

The canal or new ship-channel is on the Servian (southern) side of the river, and naturally to it have flocked the many who have come to take part in the official opening. The visit to this side has been greatly facilitated by the free entry which at the present time exists in the kingdom, no passport being required, whereas on the Rumanian side the demand for papers of nationality is rigidly enforced. Looking into the water which wells foaming through the canal, one is constrained to ask: Wherein lie the results of the great work that has just been completed, and to which an expenditure of some 18,000,000 florins or more has been put? The river is a race, and I should say, if my eyes do not deceive me, that the waters still plunge forward with a velocity of not less than six or seven miles an hour, and perhaps more. I timed the royal steamer on its return, and found that it took just sixteen minutes to beat against the current over a length somewhat exceeding one mile. It is in the depths, however, that the improvement lies. The rocks and crags that but a few years ago rifted the river, and in fact overlooked it for most of its width, have for the greater part disappeared, and in the new channel the water boils over a smoothly paved floor. Down it one descends with refreshing swiftness; up, it is merely a question of power and slow progress, for the passage is clear and safe. On the inside lies the great breakwater or dam, a gently curved construction of rocks and masonry, pleasingly symmetrical to the eye, which parts off the main waters of the Danube.

With the arrival at Salaria of the first passenger steamer from Orsova, the people began to gather on the bank, and at about eight o'clock could be seen a long file of humanity heading for the point of observation. The gay Sunday attire of the Rumanian and Servian peasantry was a charming feature in the landscape, and if in all cases the wearer did not quite come up to the habit, the quiet and dignified association of this simple folk with the event of the day was not the least interesting or picturesque part of the celebration. From far and near they come trundling along in their small wicker wagons, with horses so small and so emaciated that one wonders how they could come at all. It is the picture that we see from here well into the heart of Poland, with hardly a variation.

At about 9:40 a cannon-shot announces that the royal squadron is nearing the round of the river, and the knife is raised ready to cut the improvised chain which spans the opening to the canal. On the Rumanian side we see a body of infantry stretched along the bank, with a few pieces of artillery prepared for possible service; on the Servian a few unmounted police (carrying more the air of military service than that which we habitually associate with the peace-wardens of our cities) patrol the lines of visitors, neither infringing upon their rights nor unnecessarily intruding with that officiousness which so generally marks official duty. They realized Servia's honor in having the larger share of the occasion, but they did not abuse it.

There could hardly be a finer or more inspiring picture than that of the entry of the royal vessel into the canal. The sun shone brilliantly on the trim white craft as she ploughed into the turbulent waters, tearing through the mock chain that had been stretched between the breakwater and the Servian shore. Emperor Francis Joseph, King of Hungary, stood beside the Kings of Rumania and Servia—well to the front, and in full view of everybody. A chorus of *éljens* and "Magyarország a haza" added its voice to the thunder of cannon as the official passage was begun, and to each following vessel, carrying the rank of nobility, the army and navy, ministers and invited guests, was meted out a proper share of greeting and welcome. Hardly had the Servian cannon ceased to shake the mountains with their swelling strains when the Rumanian artillery opened out, sending forth long lines of smoke over the distant waters. This scene will not soon be forgotten by those who were witness to it, for it is not to be repeated. From now on begins a new era in the commercial development of South Central Europe.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

## RENÉE DE FRANCE.—I.

PARIS, September 23, 1896.

AMONG the illustrious ladies who first adopted the ideas of the Reformation, Renée de France, who became Duchess of Ferrara, stands foremost. Her life has recently been written by E. Rodocanachi, a Greek who has made himself a Frenchman, and who has devoted himself to the study of French history and French literature. He has conscientiously used all the documents which concern the Duchess of Ferrara. The archives of Turin furnished him the precious collection of the account-books of the Duchess, which form no less than fifty-four volumes; in Rome, he used the collection of the reports of the Pontifical agents accredited in Ferrara and in France: he found many interesting letters and documents in Venice, in the French National Library, in the libraries of Geneva, St. Petersburg, and Simáncas. He has thus been able to add much to the valuable works of Bartolomeo Fontana and others concerning Renée de France and the part she took in the great movement of the Reformation in France and in Italy.

Born on the 25th of October, 1510, Renée was the younger daughter of Louis XII., King of France. Her eldest sister, Claude de France, was married to Francis I., who became King at the death of Louis XII., as Louis had no direct heir. Renée became an orphan at the age of five years, and remained under the care of the mother of Francis I., Louise of Savoy, who did not like her, as she had much disliked her mother, Anne of Brittany. Little is known about her education; she received lessons from the celebrated theologian Lefèvre d'Étaples, who afterwards became a fervent partisan of the Reformation and produced a French translation of the New Testament. It was the liberal period of the reign of Francis I.; a number of high personages were in sympathy with the movement which began to pronounce itself in Germany against the abuses of the Church. "The world," says M. Rodocanachi, "was not yet divided irremediably into adversaries and partisans of the Holy See." A certain spirit of criticism was the fashion. Louise of Savoy preached by her own example; she wrote in her Journal: "In the year 1522, in December, my son and myself, by the grace of the Holy Spirit, began to recognize the hypocrites, white, black, gray, of all colors, from whom God, in his infinite goodness, preserve us."

Renée de France had many suitors. After Francis I. came to the throne, Don Carlos, the future Charles V., who was master of the Netherlands, but who did not yet dream of the Empire, thought of marrying her in order to become, some day, Duke of Brittany. He sent an embassy to Francis I., but the negotiation dragged on, and the combinations which followed the battle of Marignano put an end to this project. Francis thought a moment of giving Renée to the Duke of Savoy, then to the Elector of Brandenburg, afterwards to the Constable of Bourbon. Wolsey was sent to Compiègne to treat for the marriage of Renée with Henry VIII., but the King of England, fortunately for her, got enamoured of Anne Boleyn, and this preference perhaps saved her life. Finally, it was decided that she should marry Hercules of Este, the son of Alphonso I. of Este, Duke of Ferrara. Italy was at this

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time the centre of the political intrigues and combinations of Europe; the Pope, the Emperor, the King of France were all courting the alliance of the Duke of Ferrara, who had made himself important by his conquests. The future of Hercules seemed brilliant; his father had made himself master of Modena, of Finale, of Reggio; he was designated as captain of the people at Florence, a function which almost made him master of the city; he could hope, with the help of France, to become Duke of Milan, perhaps king of northern Italy. The young prince came to France with a large and brilliant retinue; the marriage was celebrated with great pomp on the 25th of June, 1528, in the Sainte-Chapelle, and the poet Marot recited an epithalamium at the banquet which followed. The young couple made the journey to Italy by short stages, accompanied by a small army of retainers. Renée had 158 persons with her, Hercules as many as 300; and it is difficult to imagine how so many people could be accommodated in the poor villages along the road.

Renée, in her contract, had to renounce all her rights to the duchy of Brittany; she received in exchange the duchy of Chartres, the county of Gisors, and the château of Montargis, where she was, long afterwards, to end her existence, and where she stopped a moment on her way to Italy. Renée had a triumphal entry at Ferrara, but she found herself quite lost at first in her dilapidated palace, not knowing a word of Italian. Her thoughts always turned to France, and she wrote to Francis: "I never had and never will have any other will but yours, and my ambition is to do you service in the way in which you command me." This was not an empty phrase, and she really always tried to influence her husband in favor of Francis I., and to defend the French interest against the interests of the Emperor and the Pope.

The marriage was not a happy one. Renée had not the gift of beauty, so common in Italy, and Hercules quarrelled with her incessantly because she would keep a few French attendants, particularly Madame de Soubise, who was a clever woman and had become her intimate friend. Duke Alphonso died on the 28th of October, 1534, and, Hercules having become his successor, made a journey to Rome to render homage to the Pope, and to Naples to solicit the protection of Charles V. On his return he ordered that Madame de Soubise should leave the court and return to France. He had bound himself very closely to the party of the Emperor; Renée remained attached to the French interest; she received at her court several Frenchmen who had been attracted by the reputation for liberalism of the University of Ferrara. Among them was the poet Clément Marot, who had been suspected of heresy, his name having been put on a list of proscripts, and he had fled first to Nérac, near the Queen of Navarre. He was called to Ferrara by Madame de Soubise. Hercules fortunately knew little about him, and Renée was allowed to place Marot on the list of her secretaries, with the small salary of 200 livres a year.

In the spring of 1536 Calvin resolved to go himself to Ferrara, hearing of the good reception which the Duchess gave to many who were united by a common hatred of the abuses of Romanism. He had just published his famous treatise on the 'Institutes of the Christian Religion,' dedicated to King Francis I. His preface had for its object to disarm Francis, who had been much alarmed some time before by some placards which had been posted on the walls of Paris and even in his own room (it was after this incident of the placards that Marot fled to Nérac). Calvin left Bâle for Ferrara in company with Canon du Tillet, his confidant and ardent disciple. Du Tillet was a canon of Angoulême; he had been captivated by the eloquence of Calvin, and had preached the Reformation till he was obliged to leave France. I hoped to find more details on the sojourn of Calvin in Ferrara in M. Rodocanachi's work, but he candidly admits that he found but little on the subject. "Several times," he says, "Renée received him at night and conversed with him. We know nothing precise about their relations. What is indubitable is that the preacher then obtained and always afterwards preserved a powerful influence over her; Renée made him her spiritual director."

Calvin knew that Italy was a ready ground for his doctrine; but sympathy for the new ideas was felt only in the higher classes, in the universities, among some dignitaries of the Church, some illustrious preachers, some cardinals, even some inquisitors. The people remained attached to the old Church, to its pomp and ceremonies. Certain incidents attracted the attention of the inquisitors, provoked the intervention of the Duke, and determined the departure of Marot. Some of Renée's servants and attendants were arrested and thrown into prison. Renée was of Breton origin, and consequently was obstinate; Hercules had in his veins the blood of the Borgias. The arrest of the prisoners became a great affair, and the French Ambassador claimed them as Frenchmen; the governor of Bologna claimed them in the name of the Pope; one of the prisoners was Renée's treasurer, Jean Cornillan, who had accompanied her from Paris to Ferrara. Renée put everything in motion to save her friends, and finally the prisoners were placed in the hands of the French Ambassador. Meanwhile Calvin, who had been arrested, was rescued by a troop of horse while he was being transferred from the prison of Ferrara to a prison in Bologna.

In 1537 Renée entered into relations with the famous poetess Vittoria Colonna, widow of Avalos, Marquis of Pescara, one of the best generals of Charles V. Vittoria Colonna was well disposed towards the Reformation. She became a friend of the Duchess; they saw each other every day. Vittoria was the elder, being then forty years old. She obtained, during a long absence on the part of the Duke, who had gone to Venice for the carnival, permission for the "Brothers of the Strict Observance," the *fraticelli* of the order of Saint Francis, to establish themselves in Ferrara, notwithstanding the opposition of the Franciscans. In the quarrel between the opulent and satisfied monachism and humble and poor monachism Vittoria and the Duchess took sides with the former. Curiously enough, on his return from Venice the Duke introduced the Jesuits into Ferrara.

Vittoria Colonna quitted Ferrara in 1538. The Duchess, left without a spiritual friend, consoled herself with her French attendants. The daughter of Madame de Soubise married M. de Pons, with whom the Duchess had become very intimate. During a mission of M. de Pons to the French court, she wrote to him daily, and the tenor of this correspondence was sometimes such as might explain some discontent on the part of the Duke. The letters of the Duchess were at times intercepted by the Duke; he exiled his wife to the castle of Consandolo, situated in the mephitic delta of the Po. The letters, preserved in the Ducal archives, and cited by M. Rodocanachi, while they show a childish kind of sentimentality, seem to me very innocent; there is more caution in a guilty correspondence. Calvin consoled the Princess in her exile by his letters, some of which are very remarkable; more and more he took possession of her mind. This did not prevent her from going to see the Pope, Paul III., who paid a visit to Ferrara; she obtained from him a brief which exempted her from any other ecclesiastical jurisdiction than that of the Roman Holy Office.

She still reconciled her respect for the Holy See with her Calvinistic ideas. Oddly enough, Renée had the Pope as a protector, an ally, and Calvin as an adviser, an inspirer, a councillor. M. Rodocanachi justly remarks that

"everywhere, but chiefly in Italy, respect for the Roman Church still accommodated itself with the desire to abolish its abuses; the limits between orthodoxy and heresy were most undecided. The violent repression of which Paul IV. was the initiator, and the excesses committed in Protestant countries, had not yet thrown an impassable barrier between the Catholic religion and the Reformed religion. More than one prelate of the Court of Rome professed, without any scruple, to hold ultramontane doctrines [the word ultramontane was then applied to the region north of the Alps], and many an ardent Reformer did not consider it a crime to pay respectful homage to the Sovereign Pontiff. . . . Renée, no more than Vittoria Colonna, no more than the Queen of Navarre, thought herself a hypocrite in proclaiming herself on the one hand 'the most humble, most obedient, and most devoted daughter' of the Pope, and in taking, on the other hand, as spiritual guides Luther and Calvin, who thought of nothing but of abolishing his authority. . . . At any rate," adds M. Rodocanachi, "women, who are less subtle than men, and are less vigorous reasoners, know very well how to ally things which to us appear irreconcilable, and can resolve the most repugnant antinomies."

# Correspondence.

## THE LABOR VOTE AT THE WEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I saw yesterday at Joliet, Ill., a farmer selling potatoes by the basket from a car. He had paid Wisconsin growers nine cents a bushel, nine cents to the railroad, and was retailing them for thirty cents. I asked him if he was a silver man. "Yes," he said, "I am for Bryan or anything else that will make it pay to raise any sort of crop." He made no pretence to any theory. "Times is bad and something's got to be done." I asked him if the Wisconsin farmers whom he knew held his opinions, and he replied, "I don't know another one in the county, and I know lots of 'em. They are all for McKinley." I was assured, upon very trustworthy evidence, that the overwhelming majority of farmers about Joliet were strong anti-Bryan men.

Some fifty miles further to the southwest is Ottawa, a town of perhaps fifteen thousand. There, upon two evenings in the week, were imposing parades distinctively of *town wage-earners*. The most picturesque part of the procession was made up of a large and powerful trade-union—the glass-blowers. One of them told me, "We are almost to a man against Bryan." This seemed quite as true of the terracotta workers, who were out under McKinley banners in great force. I talked here too with a farmer. He confirmed to the letter what had already been told me by the president of the Farmers' Congress, that "through this region at any rate the farmers are not going to vote free-silver." This farm-

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er was poor and one of the plainest of his class, and yet he had read very widely upon the money issue. He said, "You folks don't know how we're all reading on these subjects." I asked him what argument had impressed him most. He surprised me by his reply: "Wall, how can you back on a man who tells us that if we have free silver we can pay our debts a great deal cheaper, and at the same time tells us that the law will raise the fifty-three-cent dollar to a hundred-cent dollar?"

Besides the railroad employees, it is very certain that organized labor in many of these towns—Davenport, Rock Island, Moline—will give a heavy vote against Bryan. The evidence of this has been the more unexpected to me, as I have not been able to find a single labor paper in the country that is not for free silver. There was not a shred of evidence in Ottawa that the laboring men had been in any sense, directly or indirectly, "coerced."

This evidence is only local, and I draw from it no conclusions. That it has, however, some significance, cannot, I think, be denied.

JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.

CHICAGO ATHLETIC CLUB, September 12, 1896.

## THE NEGRO VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the London *Spectator* for September 19, in an article called "Mr. Bryan's Chance," it is said: "The farmers of the West and South will be supported by the negroes, who will this time be permitted to vote." This is not the case in this part of Virginia, at least. Recently an intelligent negro was asked whether he would vote for gold or silver; he replied, "For gold." Being asked how their leaders were instructing them to vote, he said, "All of 'em is for gold. Mr. B—— sent out a *history* to teach us, and it says if they have free silver and you got sixteen dollars in your pocket, it won't buy more'n the worth of eight; but that *do* seem hard to understand." Another said he knew only one colored man who was going to vote for Bryan, and that was because he was "ignorant"!

Respectfully, M. C. O.

NEAR RICHMOND, VA., October 10, 1896.

## BRYANISM ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial in which you compared Mr. Bryan to Dennis Kearny, you carried out a comparison which the Popocratic candidate for justice of the Supreme Court in the State of Washington made some time ago. He said that the sound-money men made a mistake in trying to estimate the strength of the silver movement. It is the same as that which swept California when she adopted her Constitution in 1878. In that year he was a resident of that State, and while he was opposed to the new Constitution—not openly, of course (these are his words)—he saw that the forces at the back of the movement came from the classes who never visited hotels, never rode on trains, never took any part in business enterprises, yet were sufficiently numerous to outvote all others. So now, he continued, the same men are going to carry the country.

It must be admitted that the only hope of the Populists even in this State lies in the same class, as is shown by a vote taken on trains visiting our State Fair. The result shows about four McKinley men to three Bryan men. In Yakima County there is a list of sound-money Democrats who will vote for McKinley, and say so openly, amounting to 12 per cent. of the Democratic vote in 1894, while Seattle and Tacoma will do much better. If the campaign lasted until December 1, there would be no doubt about the result in this State, while, as it is, 2,000 for Bryan is the highest claim you now hear made by conservative men, as against 10,000, which was confidently predicted in August.

McKINLEY DEMOCRAT.

NORTH YAKIMA, WASH., October 1, 1896.

## BRYAN AND BISMARCK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of his Serene Highness of Lauenburg to his Excellency of Texas has disclosed by indirection that the free coinage of silver by this country would be of especial benefit to Germany, if not to all Europe, in furnishing a market for her demonetized silver. If this really be so, could we not "bring Europe to her knees" most effectually by closing our mints entirely to silver, and is it not about time that Mr. Bryan's true position—that of travelling-agent for the European Powers—was made known to the "common people"? Yours "in gold I trust,"

X. Y. Z.

## THE DELPHIN CLASSICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has fared ill with the Delphin classics in some of our standard works of reference. The amount of definite information concerning them to be found in any one place is very small, and slight inaccuracies of statement are rather numerous.

The new edition of 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia,' ii., 712, devotes seven and one-half lines to this famous series, referring the reader to two authorities: "Hallam, Introduction to the History of Europe" and "Baillet, Jugements de Savans." The first reference is probably intended for "Hallam, Introduction to the Literature of Europe" (in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries), the second, for "Baillet, Jugemens des Savans (sur les principaux Ouvrages des Auteurs)," an ancient and voluminous work which is practically inaccessible.

The same paragraph of the 'Universal Cyclopædia' states that the Delphin classics were "prepared under superintendence of Bossuet and Huet"; the new 'Standard Dictionary' has "prepared by Bossuet and others"; the 'Century Dictionary,' "under superintendence of Montausier, Bossuet, and Huet." All these statements are misleading. The preparation of the series was first suggested by the Duke of Montausier, and the polymathic Huet was editor-in-chief. Bossuet seems really to have had very little to do with the work.

The 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' xii., 335, says that Huet "edited with the assistance of Mme. Dacier the well-known edition of the classics," etc. This statement gives a false impression as to either scholar's share in the work, and does not inform the reader that only Latin authors were included in the series.

'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia,' ii., 636, says that Madame Dacier "was employed by the Duke of Montausier to edit several Latin authors for the use of the Dauphin," and that André Dacier was the "editor of the Delphine Horace." These two statements (with the spelling "Delphine") are reprinted from the old edition of 1856. Madame Dacier seems to have been employed in this work by Huet, the editor-in-chief, and the Delphin editor of Horace was Louis Desprez (or Des-prez).

The 'New English Dictionary' says, in explanation of the name "Dauphin," that the last lord of Viennois to bear this title was "Humbert III." The histories of France by Guizot and Duruy (at least in the English translations) call him "Humbert II."

The traditional description of the Delphin classics is that they were editions of the principal Latin authors prepared for the use of the Dauphin, *ad usum Delphini*. This Latin phrase occurs *passim* in Didot's 'Biographie Générale,' and consequently (?) in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'; it is found in Sainte-Beuve, 'Causeries du Lundi,' ix., 481, in the 'Century Dictionary,' and in the 'New English Dictionary.' The title-pages of the Delphin editions announced that they had been prepared *in usum serenissimi Delphini*, as Steele's schoolboy seems to have known: "All the Boys in the School, but I, have the Classick Authors *in usum Delphini*, gilt and letter'd on the Back," *Spectator*, No. 330, 1712.

An article in the *Quarterly Review*, xcvii., p. 302, quotes from Huet's own account of his studies in anatomy: "I can safely affirm that with my own hand I have dissected more than 300 eyes taken from the heads of animals of every species." This article is reprinted in Essays by the late Mark Pattison, i., 244 ff. Didot's 'Biographie Générale,' xxv., 383, professes to quote the same passage: "Il disséqua, dit-il, plus de huit cents yeux de divers animaux," and Didot's quotation is reproduced in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' xii., 335: "In this pursuit he made more than 800 dissections."

W. P. M.

HAVERFORD, PA., October 3, 1896.

# Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. have just ready 'Modern [English] Political Orations,' from Brougham (1837) down, edited by Leopold Wagner.

By arrangement with Messrs. Macmillan, Appleton, and the Century Co., Charles Scribner's Sons will issue a collected edition of Rudyard Kipling's works to be sold only by subscription, with the customary set on Japan paper.

The Morse Co., New York, have in preparation 'Massasoit: A Romantic Story of the Indians of New England,' by Alma Holman Burton.

'The Story of American Coals' will be told by W. J. Nicolls in a book announced by J. B. Lippincott Co.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, are about to bring out 'Ex-libris: Essays of a Collector,' by Charles Dexter Allen, with twenty copper-plate prints after Bewick and others; 'A Book of the Native,' the collected poems of Prof. Charles G. D. Roberts; and 'Magnolia Blooms,' poems by Edna Procter Clark.

Prof. Karl Knortz of Evansville, Indiana, has written a work in his chosen field, 'Die wahre Inspirations-Gemeinde in Iowa [Ebenezer and Amana],' a contribution to the history of Christian pietism and communism, which is in the press of Otto Wigand, Leipzig.

An 'Encyclopædia of Indo-Aryan Research,' edited by Hofrath Georg Bühler of Vienna, with a wide collaboration, one-third in English and two-thirds in German, is to be published in three volumes of about 1,100 pages

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each, royal octavo, by Karl J. Trübner, Strassburg (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

The Riverside Edition of Mrs. Stowe's writings (Houghton, Mifflin &. Co.) begins with 'The Minister's Wooing,' 'Agnes of Sorrento,' and 'The Pearl of Orr's Island.' These uniform volumes are tastefully bound in green cloth, and have each an etched frontispiece and a vignetted title-page, together with an introductory note relating the genesis and history of the story. The typography corresponds to the name and fame of the Press in its ordinary issues. No better manufacture is needed for an edition popular in price yet handsome for the library; but a limited large-paper edition, as our readers have already been informed, keeps pace with this, and bears the autograph of the author.

Mr. Barrie's visit to this country falls in with a liberal and elegant uniform American edition of his works—the only one with his sanction—by the Messrs. Scribner, of which two volumes, in green cloth, gilt-edged and with the Thistle stamp, are before us. The first embodies 'Auld Licht Idylls' and 'Better Dead' ("Better not Included" is the author's preference), and has for frontispiece a portrait of Mr. Barrie; the second is wholly occupied by 'When a Man's Single,' and the frontispiece is a clever illustration. Mr. Barrie contributes two propitiatory introductions, in perfect temper and in very felicitous phraseology, and will do likewise by the six remaining volumes. The De Vinne Press has had the making, and the bold letter used is a delight to eyes that need the aid of glasses. The typography and presswork, indeed, are models of handicraft.

The same firm continues its uniform edition of Dr. Holland's writings with 'Seven Oaks' and 'Arthur Bonnicastle'; and its "Stories by English Authors" with two volumes, having Germany and the Low Countries for the bond of unity in one instance, and the Sea in the other, with portraits of Beatrice Harraden and of Clark Russell respectively. A second volume of selections from the writings of Edwin L. Godkin consists of eleven magazine articles, ranging from "Aristocratic Opinions of Democracy" in the *North American Review* for January, 1865, to "The Expenditure of Rich Men" in the current *Scribner's*. The intervening themes are such as have interested the past decade, and touch on politics, the tariff, socialism, political economy, in various lights and interrelations. Finally, a concession by the Scribners of a reissue at a popular price of Villari's 'Life and Times of Savonarola' in one volume is much to be commended. The paper for a not bulky book of 800 pages must needs be somewhat thin, but the handsome and readable plates are unchanged, and the portraits and illustrations not withheld.

The plates of De Amicis's 'Constantinople' in Messrs. Putnam's "Stamboul Edition" show some signs of wear, and the handsomely bound volume is rather showy than fine. The illustrations are a mixture of "process" from the life and of copies of time-honored engravings. But as the present order at Constantinople seems on the verge of crumbling away, this poetic Italian impression of it should gratify a present curiosity. Two volumes of Mayne Reid's juvenile stories, 'The Bush Boys,' 'The Boy Hunters,' in an entirely new dress which becomes them well, initiate a "Nimrod Edition" of this author's better productions for the young, and also bear the Putnam imprint.

Macmillan Company add two more volumes to Mrs. Garnett's version of Turgeneff's novels, since 'Virgin Soil' will not be contained in one. Had "Stepniak" survived, no doubt he would have been asked to furnish the introduction to this tale of the rise of Nihilism, in default of which the task has fallen to Edward Garnett. Those who like to philosophize may read or reread the sombre story while the Parisian acclaim to the Czar is ringing in his ears. A fourth volume of Björnson's novels in their uniform reprint consists of 'The Fisher Lass,' which has had a merited vogue for nearly thirty years. In the Dent-Macmillan output we must mention Balzac's 'Country Parson,' first in importance and in beauty of attire, then Daudet's 'Robert Helmont,' a good second, and "Pericles" and "Cymbeline" in the dainty "Temple Shakspere."

The Sunday-School Teachers' Edition of the Bible which comes to us from the newly established American agency of Henry Frowde and the Oxford University Press, is well adapted for its purpose in respect of open type, flexible binding, and the customary apparatus of "illustrations," glossary, subject index, etc. The old version is here adhered to.

Captain Younghusband is a well-known traveller who has distinguished himself by his explorations in remote and difficult parts of Asia. His 'Heart of a Continent' (Scribners) contains an account of his wanderings in Mantchuria in 1881, and of his remarkable overland journey from Pekin to India in the following year; also of his visits to the Hunza territory in 1889, and to the Pamirs in 1890, and his stay in Chitral as resident in 1892. His most famous adventure was in the Pamirs, where he was arrested and turned aside by the commander of a Russian expedition in those regions. The Russian officer, who was only obeying orders from headquarters, seems to have acted as politely as possible, but the affair created quite a diplomatic sensation, which was calmed by an apology from the Government of St. Petersburg. Since the settling of the Pamir boundary last year, the incident has lost all importance. We should have been glad of a fuller description of Chitral and of the author's experiences than can be found in the scant twenty pages which he devotes to the subject; indeed, this would have made a much more interesting ending for the work than his actual last two chapters on "The Missionary Question in China" and "Impressions of Travel," in which he gets rather vague, rambling, and rhapsodical. In fact, we do not understand the object of these two chapters at all. They are so unnecessary as to raise a suspicion of padding, and they force us to close with a criticism what is otherwise a well-written book. Capt. Younghusband has a clear, interesting style that inspires sympathy as well as holds the attention; he makes it evident that he is a good observer who can describe what he sees.

'The English and Dutch in South Africa,' by Hartley Withers (London: Clement Wilson), is a brief history of the relations between the English authorities and the Dutch colonists in South Africa. Although only an outline is given, it is enough to form a pretty severe arraignment of British policy, or, rather, shifting policies, for nearly a century. The sympathies of the author are evident enough: he condemns one act after another of the home Government or its representatives; he expresses much admiration of the Boers; he believes that, when not meddled with, they have on the whole treated the natives wisely and well, and he is very severe against the London Missionary Society. Even if his statements on these subjects can hardly be accepted as final, they are worthy of attention, and form a forcible presentation of facts which too many people in England are glad to overlook.

Part X. of *Bibliographica* (Scribners) maintains a high level of excellence and has a marked English interest. Cyril Davenport supplies a readable paper on the bindings of Samuel Mearne and his school; the early English writing-masters, some of whom acquired fortunes by their manuals and otherwise, are reviewed by Edward F. Strange; Alfred W. Pollard treats of some pictorial and heraldic initials, especially English; and Henry R. Plomer and Edward Arber have kindred themes—the one in his "References to Books in the Reports of the Historical MSS. Commissioners," and the other in his "Contemporary Printed Lists of Books Produced in England." Mr. Arber seeks to convey some idea of the bounds of knowledge of English book production, of which so much has perished altogether, and arranges chronologically such lists as early controversial writers indulged in, and such attempts as were from time to time made to record the current issues of the press. He thus enumerates to the present century upwards of fifty bibliographies, the first serial being a solitary half-yearly catalogue for 1618–1619. Extraordinary value attaches to the Thomason collection of Civil War Tracts, 130,000 in number, now in the British Museum, all exactly dated and catalogued in manuscript, but never yet "adequately worked, whether for historical or for bibliographical purposes." With the Term Catalogues of books printed in England, 1668–1709, we begin to "smell land," in Suffolk idiom. Two papers, on "Little Books" and on "The Books of the Carthusians," are both important and attractive.

The initial part of vol. iii. of the Proceedings of the Huguenot Society of America (New York) furnishes much interesting reading, though, with perhaps one exception, there is no historical contribution of a high order. A frontispiece portrait of the late John Jay foreshadows a memorial by Dr. A. G. Vermilye, and various sections of the country are taken up, respectively, in the Rev. M. C. Julien's lantern lecture on the "Huguenots of Old Boston," in Dr. James Le Fevre's "Huguenot Patentees of New Paltz, N. Y.," James B. Laux's "Huguenot Element in Pennsylvania," Dr. John H. Edwards's "First Home of the Huguenots in North America [present United States]," viz., Florida, and R. H. Tilley's "Huguenots of Rhode Island." None of these papers implies exhaustive research, but all are full of useful suggestion. After making Priscilla Mullins (Molines) a Huguenot maiden, Mr. Julien endeavors to bring John Alden into the fold, and does at least show alliances of English Aldens with Blancard and Du Prier. Prof. Baird, discoursing on the recovery of religious liberty by the Huguenots, by no means does justice to Rousseau in censuring him for not intervening on behalf of the persecuted Protestants as did Voltaire. Rousseau truly declared that his letter on behalf of toleration to the Archbishop of Paris had brought upon himself fresh persecution from the Protestants, on account of his "heresies," and he had no mind for more, or to expose himself to an obvious Catholic retort. The whole of his letter of July 15, 1764, of which Prof. Baird cites a part, should be read together with that of May 25 of the same year.

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Volume xv. of the Bulletin of the United States Fish Commission, of 475 pages and numerous plates, in small quarto, includes among other matters summaries of the results of efforts in the introduction and propagation of fishes, lobsters, oysters, etc., on the Pacific slope of the continent, which, together with reports of investigations looking towards further introduction and conservation, make a very fair exhibit of the purposes and accomplishments of the Commission, or of the reason for its existence. The bulkiest paper is that on the American Lobster, which contains some fine illustrations. In this portion of the text the display of the personal pronoun, the great *I*, and its scientific importance are somewhat out of proportion.

The Annual Report of the Pennsylvania State College for the Year 1895 is a satisfactory volume in various respects. It is an illustrated octavo of 433 pages. Treating of analyses of soils, fertilizers, fruits, and grains, and of dairy, garden, and field products, etc., it possesses an interest transcending the borders of the State. Four-fifths of the book relates to the work of the Agricultural Experiment Station. A paper of special geologic attractiveness is that on "A Phosphate Deposit in Juniata County."

None of the reports of the Agricultural Colleges or Experiment Stations excels that issued by the University of California, for the year 1894–95, in amount, diversity, and importance of practical suggestions and of scientific researches. It contains 481 pages, is profusely illustrated, and, from the special investigations of Director Hilgard and others, has a value for reference that will be increasingly appreciated in years to come. Its pages are highly suggestive of the variety in Californian climates, soils, and productions.

The October Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of books on the currency question, supplemental to that published in September, together with titles of books on political science and political economy.

The bibliography of geographical literature for 1895, just published by the *Annales de Géographie*, is an improvement upon those of previous years. The number of collaborators has been increased to forty-nine, an index of authors has been added, and nearly every entry has a clear and comprehensive analytical note. This causes the size of the volume to be the same as last year's, though there are only 1,087 entries against 1,590 for 1894, many references to short articles in the periodicals being omitted. We remark a large increase of works on Africa.

The *Bibliothèque Universelle*, a monthly review now published in Lausanne, Switzerland, has just celebrated the hundredth anniversary of its foundation. It was originally established in Geneva, under the title *Bibliothèque Britannique*, by Frédéric Guillaume Maurice and the brothers Marc Auguste Pictet (pupil and friend of the famous naturalist Saussure) and Charles Pictet de Rochemont, diplomatist. At that time Geneva was making a desperate struggle for political independence against the intrigues of the French Republic, and the chief aim of the new periodical, as its name implied, was the diffusion of English ideas and scientific researches in France and Switzerland. It numbered among its earliest contributors Sir Humphry Davy, Edward Jenner, Sir Joseph Banks, the physicist Charles Earl of Stanhope, Maria Edgeworth, and, at a somewhat later period, Sir John Herschel. In 1816 it enlarged its scope so as to include especially the results of philosophical inquiry and scientific investigation in Germany, and changed its name to *Bibliothèque Universelle*. Since 1893 it has been published in Lausanne, where the centennial festival was held on September 7. It is from the addresses delivered on this occasion by Profs. Ernest Naville and Philippe Guye that our information concerning the review is derived.

Recent issues of the *Beilage* to the *Munich Allgemeine Zeitung* (Nos. 210–212, 216, 218, 220, 221), contain a series of seven articles by Prof. E. P. Evans, entitled "Die Bücherschätze eines Amerikanischen Bibliographen," and giving a full historical and critical account of Prof. Willard Fiske's Icelandic and Petrarch collections of printed books and manuscripts. These articles cover nearly fifty columns of the German journal, and present the first exhaustive bibliographical and literary description of this rare library ever published. The Rhæto-Romanic and Dante collections of Prof. Fiske, now in the library of Cornell University, are only incidentally mentioned in a footnote. We may state, by the way, that the *Beilage*, which appears six times a week and is devoted to literature, science, and art, may now be subscribed for separately, and is also published in a weekly edition, which costs seven marks a quarter for all countries in the Postal Union, and is certainly the most convenient form for foreign subscribers and libraries.

—No part of President Eliot's Chautauqua address on "Five American Contributions to Civilization," now printed in the October *Atlantic*, is more important than that which points out the advance this country has made towards the substitution of discussion and arbitration for war and the avoidance of armaments. There is a raking fore and aft here of the arguments of those persons of misdirected sensibility who have worked themselves into a belief that a war is needed now and then to develop the heroic virtues, such as courage, loyalty, and self-sacrifice. The crop of financial and political evils developed by war will flourish in the future as freely as ever; but with modern appliances for wholesale slaughter the brunt of battles will fall on war-chests and treasuries, and heroes will have perforce to find their opportunities in the walks of peace. Some of the peaceful occupations which President Eliot instances as always calling for skill, fidelity, and resolution, and at times for heroic self-sacrifice, are those of the locomotive engineer, the electrical lineman, the policeman, the city fireman, and the trained nurse. The craving for war as an incentive to extraordinary exertions is met by the suggestion that there is no department of national life in which we could not advantageously put forth more force than we now expend. The post-office, national sanitation, and education are several of the fields in which there is still room for the largest appetite for abnormal activity to satisfy itself.

—An article in *Scribner's*, "From Light to Light," by Kirk Munroe, calls attention to still another of the avocations of peace in which constant vigilance and occasional displays of heroism are called for. The lonely light houses scattered along the coast, from Maine to Texas, shelter lives which escape the notice of the world at large, and to most readers this account of the supply-ship *Armeria*, which once in the year carries oil and provisions to each, will give some novel and interesting impressions. But something more than a curious interest attaches to an article on "The Government of the Greater New York," by Francis V. Greene. Reduced to its last terms, the problem of good government appears here as the getting of good men. The position of the Mayor of the consolidated city will, it is argued, be second in responsibility and importance only to that of the President of the United States, and should be surrounded by every possible dignity. Fame and honor will, in fact, be the only rewards that will suffice to tempt the ablest and best men to the arduous task of administering the affairs of such a community as the Greater New York. In the formation of its charter, aid from three sources is suggested—from the Federal and State political systems, the government of great cities abroad, and the management of large business corporations, although the experience of these varied sources combined is not sufficient to cover the complicated and unprecedented problems presented by this great corporation, with its public income of $50,000,000 a year, and its population "nearly equal to that of the original thirteen States at the time the Constitution was adopted." A prime factor in the difficulties to be overcome by the Charter Commission is, of course, the mixed nature of the population, of which but twenty per cent. is American by birth and parentage. Now that more than one-third of the entire population of the United States is living in cities, and these among the worst governed in the world, this article of Mr. Greene's, with its careful consideration of civic problems from various points of view, recommends itself to all serious students of municipal government.

—In the current number of the *Century*, a study of mental epidemics by Boris Sidis furnishes a psychological key to some of the social and political spectacles of the day. Man, in common with other gregarious animals, is susceptible to the movements of his companions, and this "suggestibility," as it is called in connection with the human animal, increased to an extraordinary degree, results in nothing more nor less than "a stampede, a mob, an epidemic." The behavior of bodies of men in a state of abnormal susceptibility to suggestion, or the hypnotic state, is illustrated by the crusade, the flagellant, the dancing and other manias of the middle ages, and by the camp-meeting revivals not yet obsolete. Political conventions and crazes naturally add themselves to this list in the mind of the reader, and an excellent editorial article on "Government by Hysteria," under the head of "Topics of the Time," carries out the train of thought started by the idea of epidemic insanities to its practical issue for the voter. In this number of the magazine Prof. Sloane brings to a conclusion his lengthy history of the Napoleonic wars, and Mrs. Humphry Ward drops the curtain on the dramatis personæ of her novel "Sir George Tressady." Mme. Blanc (Th. Bentzon), assisted by the numerous illustrations of Maurice Boutet de Monvel, and drawing on her recent travels in this country for comparisons which give animation without invidiousness to the treatment of her subject, contributes an entertaining account of French children. The undercurrent of pardonable partiality that may easily be detected for the grace and suavity of the little girls of her own race, interferes in no way with the openness of mind and freedom of judgment with which Mme. Blanc views the juvenile world; while the lively designs of boys and girls are full of the artistic

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*chic* to be expected from French work in general and from M. Boutet de Monvel in particular.

—*Harper's Magazine* gives its first pages this month to one of Frederic Remington's illustrated sporting articles, "The Blue Quail of the Cactus"—a game too small, apparently, to call out the best energies of a pencil accustomed to cope successfully with a four-footed quarry or with the bucking broncho. "A Recovered Chapter in American History," by Walter Clark, goes back to the war of 1740 between England and Spain, and claims a tardy recognition for the bravery of our fellow-countrymen who responded to the King's call to the colonies for men and means to aid in the ill-fated expedition against Cartagena. Samuel H. Scudder writes interestingly about "Some American Crickets," and an article in the "Great American Industries Series" treats of electricity. But fiction preponderates in the number, and ranges through all degrees of good, bad, and indifferent. Ruth McEnery Stuart proves as successful in the pathetic story of "The Unlived Life of Little Mary Ellen" as she frequently has done in the humorous vein. Prof. Brander Matthews's "Vigil of McDowell Sutro" shows the value to the writer of fiction of observant intercourse with all sorts and conditions of men, and is an excellent example of what can be accomplished by persistent practice and the application of sound methods in the way of making a readable story. The first part of Mr. Du Maurier's new novel, "The Martian," proves, on the other hand, how inimitable is the charm of the story-teller who is born, not made—of a story-teller who, alas! will charm us no more.

—It was only twenty-five years ago that European scholars echoed old Kaempfer's assertion that, since the time of Jimmu Tennō (the first mythical Mikado, whose very name was not invented until one thousand years after his supposed reign, 660-585 B. C.), the Japanese have been "accurate and faithful in writing the history of their country and the lives and reigns of their monarchs." The English scholars Aston, Satow, Chamberlain, and Bramsen, by elaborate investigations into the very first written records of Japan, demolished the whole edifice of mediæval and modern superstition which had been raised originally for political enginery. Then followed the work of natives, Prof. Kumi and Mr. Naka, who showed the thorough inaccuracy, untrustworthiness, and even falsifications of the writers of the two most ancient books, the 'Kojiki' and the 'Nihongi,' composed early in the eighth century. Both native and foreign scholars, however, agree in the unique value of both these works in their middle and latter parts as mirrors of history, custom, ritual, and geography. We are happy to say that now both books exist in an English translation. The 'Kojiki,' literally translated with elaborate introduction and abundant notes, both marked by great learning and critical power, by Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain, forms a supplement to Vol. x., Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan (price $4.00 in silver, $2.00 in American gold; to be had by addressing the Librarian, Prof. Ernest W. Clement, Tsukiji, Tokyo, Japan).

—The 'Nihongi,' or Chronicle of Japan, has been put into English, with concise introduction, preface, illustrations, and notes by Mr. W. G. Aston, who has been for thirty-two years a student of remarkable ability in the languages of China, Korea, and Japan, in which countries he has resided. He crowns his life-work in sending forth volume i. of his two-volume translation of the 'Nihongi,' which is published for the Japan Society of London by Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. Mr. Aston discusses the question of early writing in Japan, the date and authorship of the 'Nihongi,' the materials from which it is constructed, its character and contents, its chronology, text, and editions, and makes comparisons with the 'Kojiki.' Of the two books, the earlier one, the 'Kojiki,' or Notices of Things Ancient, is written in Japanese by means of Chinese characters used phonetically, though sometimes these are used as ideographs. The book has no chronology, and its narrative comes to an end at the close of the fifth century. The 'Nihongi' is written in Chinese, in Chinese literary style, and is overloaded with Chinese philosophical notions, historic and literary references, and even borrowed passages. These latter we can hardly call quotations, but rather transfers. Furthermore, the 'Nihongi' is double the size of its predecessor, and continues the narrative as far as the end of the seventh century. The importance of the work is therefore manifest. Dr. Florenz of Tokyo, a scholar of unusual literary penetration and grace, has also translated the 'Nihongi' into German. Mr. Aston's thorough knowledge of Chinese history enables him to locate in the Chinese books the chief ideas and phrases which make the staple of the speeches put into the mouths of early Japanese heroes by the author or authors of the 'Nihongi.' The value of the work is rather enhanced than detracted from by the author's modesty in declining to try to make sense of some of the obscure verses which are found in the course of the prose narrative. Though in general the whole story is clear and readable, we think that of the two narratives the more unsophisticated form of the 'Kojiki' is by far the most fascinating.

## DICEY'S CONFLICT OF LAWS.

*A Digest of the Laws of England* with reference to the Conflict of Laws. By A. V. Dicey. With Notes of American Cases, by John Bassett Moore. London: Stevens & Sons; Boston: The Boston Book Co. 1896.

Mr. Dicey's name is well known to all American lawyers as the author of valuable works on Domicile and Parties; his 'Conflict of Laws' embodies a second and carefully corrected edition of his book on Domicile, which he has thus incorporated in what he modestly calls a Digest. It is in reality an elaborate treatise as well, covering the whole ground explored by Story, and dealing with it in a new way. The first sixty pages give the General Principles (compressed into a page) and the Digest, consisting of less than two hundred rules. This is followed by an Introduction explaining the nature of the subject, the method of treatment, and the general principles. Then each rule is given in order, with illustrations, consisting of cases stated in the present tense, accompanied by comment wherever exposition is necessary, and by Prof. Moore's valuable notes and American cases, of which there seem to be a greater number than of English decisions, so that the book promises to be no less instructive and useful to the American than to the English lawyer. In this way the subjects of Status, Domicile, Marriage and Divorce, Contracts, Real Property, and all the other topics which produce a question as to which of two or more territorial laws shall be applied to their solution, are discussed; yet the method of arrangement and discussion is wholly new. Research, accuracy, and condensation have been the guiding principles of the work.

The novelty of Mr. Dicey's method consists in the fact that he has adopted as the basis of his work a distinction which, when once stated, is clear enough, but which has been hitherto generally, if not universally, overlooked, namely, that the question of the judicial assumption of *jurisdiction to determine* a case presenting a question of the conflict of laws is wholly different from the question (assuming the first question to be answered in the affirmative) *by what law* it shall be decided. A brief explanation, in which we follow his Introduction, will make the distinction and its results intelligible.

Every modern State (and in this respect every American State is an independent sovereignty) administers a body of law intended to apply to all citizens, property and contracts within its borders. In almost all cases the questions which arise for determination by its courts are wholly domestic; the rights, claims, or demands set up on one side or the other being of local origin. A, living in Albany, sues B, living in New York, on a contract made in Brooklyn. B maintains that the suit is barred by lapse of time. The decision of the case depends wholly on the rule laid down by the New York Legislature as to the time within which suits in New York must be brought. But in some cases the matter is not wholly domestic. The contract, for instance, may have been made in France. In this case, is the New York rule as to the limitation of actions to govern, or the French? Or, B may admit the contract, yet produce a French discharge in bankruptcy. Shall this discharge be recognized in New York? What principle is to govern when rights of foreign origin are asserted in the domestic forum?

The question has usually been answered as if it were single. In Mr. Dicey's analysis it is twofold: first, is the case one which the domestic court will undertake to determine at all? second, to what body of law must we look to decide upon the rights of the parties? The first question is one of jurisdiction, the second one of selection between two or more competing bodies of law. The Conflict of Laws, or Private International Law, then, is that part of the law of any given State which lays down rules for the decision of these questions. Although the principles governing it are very much alike throughout the civilized world, the enforcement of them depends wholly on the view locally taken of the subject, and this view differs in some respects in different countries; for instance, the English courts determine the question of the legitimacy of a foreigner by the law of his domicile at birth, while in Italy the question is determined by his nationality. Hence, instead of pursuing, as most of the writers before Story did, a theoretic method of inquiry into a supposed system of private international law existing in all countries, the rational method is to confine the investigation to each country separately. Mr. Dicey accordingly inquires simply what are the rules recognized by English courts. In this country the English rules are generally followed (though of course we have statutes of our own which are non-existent in England, and vice-versa), and separate books on the conflict of laws in the State of New York, the State of Massachusetts, and the State of Nevada would be absurdities. But law is a practical matter, and Mr. Dicey's Digest must be

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considered as a treatise embodying principles of English law, and not as part of the imaginary world-wide *corpus juris* invented by Continental writers.

Mr. Dicey's fundamental question divides the subject into two fields. He calls the first that of jurisdiction, the other that of choice of law. The rules governing domicile and nationality precede these two divisions. Throughout, he has followed what he calls the "positive" as distinguished from the "theoretic" method, and he considers that the adoption of the former debars him from the examination of the historical problems connected with the growth of private international law. With this view of the matter we cannot altogether sympathize. By cutting himself off on one side as far as possible from theory, and on the other from historical interpretation, he has left to himself nothing but pure positive law, and this his Digest is intended to be. But for purposes of complete exposition we need, as he would not deny, both the historical explanation of the growth of the rules so far as it can be ascertained, and the theoretic discussion of the philosophical grounds on which the general principles can be rested. The author is in reality a master of exposition and explanation, yet he seems in this book to have subjected himself to a self-denying ordinance under which he declines to explain any positive rules of law except in terms of law itself. The result is, that his "general principles" are condensed statements of the matters which form the substance of the book, put in a highly abstract form; and such statements, in our opinion, sometimes defeat their own ends, owing not to inaccuracy, but to their pushing a particular method to a point at which it becomes ineffectual. In other words, it seems to us that while much of private international law is capable of being stated in the form of rules, portions of it cannot be thrown into this form effectively, and that here the theoretic and the historical method must be pursued.

For instance, contrast such a rule as the following on Domicile: "The domicile of a married woman is during coverture the same as, and changes with, the domicile of her husband," with the following on the essential validity of contracts: "The essential validity of a contract is (subject to the exceptions hereinafter mentioned) governed indirectly by the proper law of the contract." The former is perfectly lucid, and states a rule as a judge would give it to a jury; the latter represents an attempt to extract a *ratio decidendi* from a great number of English judgments, holding that the question whether a contract will be held valid by an English court or not depends on the law of the country with which it has most substantial connection, *i. e.*, a French contract must be tested by French law, an Italian by Italian law, etc.

"But when we ask what is the circumstance which in the main determines what is the country to which a contract belongs, we find that it is the intention of the parties, or, in other words, we are brought round again to the conclusion that the essential validity of a contract is in the main determined *by the proper law* thereof. We can now see what is the real meaning of English judges where they decline, as they often most rightly do, to be bound by any hard-and-fast rule as to the law governing the construction or validity of a contract. They do not intend to question the principle that a contract is governed by the law or laws to which the parties intended to submit themselves, but do intend to express the perfectly sound doctrine that, in ascertaining what this intended law is, a Court ought to take into account every circumstance of the case, and ought not to be tied down to any rigid presumption that the parties must have intended to be bound by a particular law, whether it be the *lex loci celebrationis* or the *lex loci solutionis*" (p. 766).

This is a most lucid explanation of a most difficult point; but an examination of the rule does not, to our mind, advance us at all. And the author himself gives us the reason. It is because the judges themselves say that they will not be bound by a hard-and-fast rule at all. The rule as given, with the qualifications, explanations, and exceptions and correlated rules, brings us back to the point that there is no rule.

The reader will perceive that this criticism is founded upon a view of which Mr. Dicey himself would perhaps not admit the validity —that the whole *corpus juris* is not capable of being stated in the form of rules resembling statutes; that there is a large body of law as to which the judges are not bound by rules capable of precise formulation. Any such digest as he has prepared is in reality a code, and necessarily raises the old question whether and how far codification is possible. Here we have a case where the judges themselves have refused to be bound by any rule, and a rule prepared by one of the acutest and clearest legal writers of our day to supply the deficiency. Is it supplied? Will the judges accept it? We think not. We think they will continue to say, "On the whole, this is a New York contract," or "On the whole, this is a French contract," and decline to be bound by any rule at all. Of course it will be said that law which is not a rule is not law at all, and the question is one which involves the nature of jurisprudence itself. What we have said does not impugn the excellence of Mr. Dicey's work. It merely raises the point whether in certain portions of it the formulation of rules is not a task beyond human powers.

For practical purposes (and the Conflict of Laws is a highly practical subject) Mr. Dicey's method, in both conception and execution, has every merit. If, here and there, it shows signs of inadequacy, the author's explanations, paraphrases, and instances always make the conclusion of the matter so clear that, in the end, the process by which it has been reached has become in great measure unimportant. The effort to construct a rule, even if not wholly successful, is, to the student or practising lawyer, often as illuminating as the most complete triumph of juridico-legislative statement could be. In these respects the book is essentially different from Story's; it is eminently a book out of which to advise a client. Its publication may be said to mark an epoch in the study of the subject, to whose importance it is now some sixty years since Story called attention by the publication of his well-known treatise. "There exists no treatise upon it," he said, "in the English language." The materials for its study were "loose and scattered," and to the student of the common law "absolutely repulsive." These repulsive materials consisted of the opinions and reasonings of Continental jurists, of which Story was forced, by the fact that common-law courts had not then devoted much attention to the subject, to make much of his treatise bodily consist. All such discussion is by Mr. Dicey wholly eliminated, and, while we still get the fruits of the speculations of Rodenburg, Boullenois, Bouhier, Froland, and even the learned Strykius, we get them in the form of English and American judgments, and the author's own clear and practical analysis. Story's book has become a classic, but it is little read, partly because, although he was the first to apply to the subject the positive method of the common law, he could not apply it thoroughly. Since his time many common lawyers have explored the field, but we believe it has been left to Mr. Dicey to crown the work. What he has undertaken to do we can hardly imagine any one doing better, and his book must, of necessity, become the leading authority on the Conflict of Laws for England and the United States.

## MORRIS'S IRELAND.

*Ireland, 1494-1868.* With two introductory chapters. By W. O'Connor Morris, County Court Judge, etc. Macmillan. 1896.

We have here another volume of the admirable Cambridge Historical Series, whose aim is "to sketch the history of modern Europe, with that of its chief colonies and conquests, from about the end of the fifteenth century down to the present time." This book does not claim to be a history, and yet it is a history in the best sense. The ordinary reader will gain from its perusal a clearer view of the course and bearing of the story of Ireland than from most other books in which events and persons are more clearly defined. The title is somewhat misleading. The words "with two introductory chapters" had better have been omitted. The history of the island from 1494 to 1868 is the main burthen; but this period is naturally led up to and followed without break by a narrative which constitutes the whole a complete history from the earliest times to the present day. The writer does not keep his personality in the background; and his erudition, his grasp of the subject, his breadth of view, make his personality the most interesting portion of the work. It is the best general history of Ireland that has yet appeared, and subsequent writers will have some difficulty in surpassing it. Once taken up by one at all interested in the subject, it will scarcely be consigned to a permanent place in a library until read through.

The preface says truly:

"The annals of few countries so clearly illustrate the evident sequence of cause and effect in the evolution of the life and fortunes of a misruled, backward, and most ill-fated community. . . . Irish history places in the fullest light the evils of wrong done in the name of religion; of a system of government planned on the principle of the ascendancy of a mere sect; of society formed in all its parts on the domination of a small caste, and on the denial of right to a conquered people; of the divisions of race and faith rending a community in twain and forbidding the fusion of classes kept apart; and of commercial restrictions of extreme harshness; and it teaches a whole series of economic lessons, throughout its long course, of the greatest value."

Judge Morris expatiates upon the immense power of circumstances in shaping the course of affairs in Ireland. Most readers will supplement his "instances" with the thought of the might-have-been in our day if Mr. Parnell had not met his Delilah.

The myths concerning the origin of the Round Towers die hard. One would suppose that Petrie had for ever laid them. We are not aware of a single scholar of Celtic literature since his day that has not agreed with him regarding their Christian origin. It would be difficult indeed to visit Ravenna without recognizing the ecclesiastical towers there as their prototypes. Our author still considers Petrie's "supposition open to doubt."

He entertains a high estimate of Henry VIII.'s Irish policy:

"He had formed views on Ireland and Irish

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government remarkable for their enlightened wisdom—the best, perhaps, considering the circumstances of the time, that were ever conceived by an English statesman. He turned a deaf ear to the argument of force, and refused to listen to plans for conquering Ireland with the sword, and for 'planting' the whole country with English colonies. He wished, indeed, to be a real king in Ireland, and to make his kingship a good influence."

Judge Morris's virile exposition of past wrongs and misgovernment is strengthened by the fact, patent in his latter chapters, of his being a Unionist. We have, as the result of the latest and fullest historical inquiry, the fateful bogey of the "Massacre of 1641" fully laid:

"This is a myth devised by passion and self-interest. Unquestionably much that was atrocious was done, as has always happened in crises of the kind; there were cruel scenes of revenge and blood; but the deaths of the settlers caused by violence seem not to have been more than a few thousand, though doubtless numbers perished from other causes—cold, exposure, and the hardships of winter. . . . The colonists, stricken down at first, had ere long stood savagely at bay; and, after the fashion of a dominant race, they were guilty of barbarities of all kinds, probably worse than any inflicted on them."

Our author does not appear to us altogether fair to the Irish Parliament. He is too much inclined to compare its faults of omission and commission, not with other parliaments of the same time, but with those of to-day; and, unconsciously, we believe, he does not bring out with sufficient clearness the degree to which it would have followed a liberal and wise policy in relation to the Catholics had it not been baffled and thwarted by the British Ministry. On the other hand, he is right in his estimate of the want of wise statesmanship shown by Grattan and his compatriots in believing that the arrangement of 1782 was one that was likely to stand without modification. Had they recognized the necessity for union in essentials, Ireland might have retained her liberty in local affairs.

In describing the Repeal agitation we perceive one of the few blots into which partisanship regarding present politics has betrayed Judge Morris. He speaks of home rule as the "same thing" as repeal. No statement could be more misleading. The arrangement of 1782 was thinly veiled independence, with rights and duties, in so far as union was concerned, ill defined. "Repeal" meant a reversion to such a state of things. No one could read either of Mr. Gladstone's home-rule bills, or the debates and discussions relating to them, without recognizing that home rule as now understood implies the continuance of a union more rigid than that between our States, and the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament. The report of the Financial Relations Committee had not appeared when Judge Morris wrote, or he would scarcely speak so tentatively concerning the fiscal policy pursued towards Ireland since 1800. We are curious to know what grounds there are for the statement, on page 306, that Grattan, "in his later years, . . . seems to have approved of the Union he had so fiercely denounced."

According to our author (page 335), Irish landlords have "been grossly wronged" by recent legislation. That an Irish county court judge, often exercising functions in regard to land cases, can so write, furnishes us with a key to the extent to which legislation passed for the benefit of the Irish masses has, in its administration, been invariably stretched as far as possible against them. All recent statistics tend to prove that the English landlords, by the quiet force of surrounding public opinion, have, in the land depression affecting the whole world, had to give way more than their Irish brethren, free from surrounding public opinion, through the force of law. We might cite numerous passages in which Judge Morris admits the incapacity shown by England to legislate satisfactorily for the internal affairs of Ireland. He suggests no remedy. He knows little of the character and intentions of most of the Irish leaders of his day, or he would not have written so severely concerning them. Ireland has passed through a fiery ordeal within the past sixty years. She has lost nearly half her population. It is but ten years since a degrading Coercion Act was permanently riveted upon her. Yet he can speak of the present as "a most glorious reign." How little has he, under a union that has subsisted for ninety six years, been brought into sympathy with the mass of his fellow-countrymen!

These are, however, but slight blemishes in what is, upon the whole, a valuable book, and one which all classes of Irishmen might read with profit. We cannot conclude without a word of praise as to the preparation of this series of books. They are pleasant to handle, pleasant to read; condensed, yet clear. We trust that in a second edition the provincial divisions on the otherwise excellent map of Ireland will be made clearer.

## A PROFESSOR'S SHEAF.

*Harvard Studies in Classical Philology.* Vol. VII. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1896.

THE latest volume of the Harvard Studies is dedicated to Prof. Lane, and is made up almost exclusively of articles by his former pupils. It was presented last commencement, under circumstances of ideal fitness and propriety, to the professor whose long and useful services it commemorates. It was the fiftieth anniversary of his A.B. degree; and, at the noon meeting of the class of '46, Mr. Greenough, in a Latin speech, presented him a specially bound copy of the dedicatory volume. The affair was a great surprise and pleasure to the Emeritus Professor, who expressed his thanks also in Latin, in the presence of a dozen classmates. No one of Prof. Lane's pupils can forget the grace, the neatness, the succinctness with which he wore his ample learning; no one of his older pupils can forget that he was above all a teacher, with inspiring manners and methods, and perfectly definite aims, at a time when the old-fashioned Harvard College possessed in its faculty many scholars—some geniuses, in fact—but very few genuine teachers. A genius is well worth catching and displaying in the environment of a university, even though he appear to be an expensive extravagance, like a magnificent orchid; a genuine teacher deserves equally to be coddled and cultivated, though he may expend his energy exclusively on kindling other minds instead of writing and publishing.

This is what Prof. Lane preferred to do, and, for the good of his pupils, was permitted to do. The complimentary preface expresses a wish that he had not been so sparing of ink and paper; but really in this very matter he has set an example of self-restraint and self-denial to the younger generation of scholars which they will find it hard to imitate. Make haste—write—publish—edit—advertise your names, and you will receive promotion—this is what the universities practically say to the young men whom they invite and urge to publish their hasty views of some Liliputian horizon. The invitation sets a premium on immaturity and inaccuracy, and multiplies raw work and fragmentary publications. Mr. Lane preferred to ripen his pearls at leisure, and let them be worn by others; or, rather, he chose to play the Socratic midwife and assist at the birth of scholars. What we gain by such a rôle is exemplified in this dedicatory volume.

The Studies offer an embarrassment of riches from which it is hard to restrict one's self in choosing nuggets. Prof. Goodwin's subtle distinctions, Prof. Herbert Weir Smyth's elaborate discussion of Æschylus's use of anapæsts, and some other valuable papers must, we regret to say, remain "caviare to the general." Prof. Greenough, in remarking on the "construction contrary to fact" in cases where no condition is expressed, represents ingeniously by diagrams the difference of voice inflections with which we say "I *meant* to go to town" according as we did or did not go; he reminds us that the Greeks and the Latins must have used similar varieties of tone to intimate the double meaning in this class of sentences. Dr. Everett contributes some clever emendations and sound criticism apropos of Brieger's useful but vulnerable, and sometimes glaringly careless, edition of Lucretius. Most scholars will agree with Prof. Morgan's sensible conclusion and proofs that Persius was not obliged to resort to his *Gradus* in writing hexameters, and that he knew his quantities, and followed satisfactory usage when he wrote *rūdere* (cf. *Bithyni*, Juv. 7, 15), and probably even *rŏgās*. The expression *numeros scribere* is just as natural as the English *to write metre*. Dr. Morgan is right in regarding *sitiat* (i. 60) as a true potential—that very rare usage in Latin; but his illustrations from Horace and Juvenal are not strictly pertinent, as the subjunctive in these cases is influenced by an implication of purpose or result. In iii. 29 we would read "Censorem vetulum vel quod trabeate salutas." *Vetulum*, the "good old" Censor, seems to us tolerably *Persian*, while the vocative *trabeate* is a mannerism.

Prof. Hale makes out a very strong case in controverting the ordinary Latin rule for syllabification which requires the syllable to end with a vowel and begin with a consonant or any pronounceable combination of consonants. He maintains that this rule applied mainly to the written, not to the spoken, word; and he shows that the same is the case with the Romance languages, which have been cited in support of the supposed ancient Roman practice. He finds that in daily speech the Romans and the Florentines actually say *bas ta*, *capis-co*, *tec-nico*, not *ba-sta*, etc., as the phonetists assert. The testimony of our own ear agrees with this conclusion; and, indeed, some carefully printed Italian books and dictionaries do not follow strictly this rule of division.

Prof. F. D. Allen's excursus on Plautus's "Os Columnatum," illustrated by the modern pillory and the African slave-stick, throws new light in many points on the subject of ancient appliances for punishment, and on the dark and savage side of slave life among the Greeks and the Romans. The excellent facsimile of Coronelli's rare map of Athens, preserved in the German Institute, and dating about 1690, is here presented and discussed by Prof. J. R. Wheeler, and is an interesting token of the spread of Greek studies at that period, as well as of the Venetian conquests which culminated in the bombardment and ruin of the Parthenon. It has next to no topo-

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graphical value, the orientation being in some portions 90 degrees out of the way.

The austere scientific and philological tone of these studies is relieved by the literary interest of Prof. Dyer's paper on the "Plot of the Agamemnon." It touches the same difficulty as to the sequence of events which was raised by Dr. Verrall some years ago and received from him a somewhat mechanical solution. He doubted the possibility of the beacon-message from Troy; but the late Prof. Merriam, in his paper on "Telegraphing among the Ancients," has proved the ideal plausibility of such a message. There is, besides, another apparent difficulty. The action of the greater part of the play belongs evidently to the day of Agamemnon's reaching home; but the action begins on the night of the capture and sack of Troy, of which Clytemnestra gives us an imaginative vision. It is continued by the arrival of Agamemnon's herald in the morning of the same day, his announcement of victory, and his circumstantial narrative of the shipwreck of the Greeks. Now, as a matter of prosaic fact, the herald and Agamemnon ought to have required at least a week to sail home to Argos; and one who measures time by the watch might criticise the poet, as a certain scholiast did, for "making the Greeks arrive on the same day." The general answer to this objection is that the earlier action of the play is managed with such dramatic power and imagination that the anachronism does not occur at all to the reader or spectator who has yielded to the poet's spell. But in particular Mr. Dyer points out how skilfully the dramatist has bridged the gap between Clytemnestra's vision of the sacked city and the herald's entrance, by the foreboding of the chorus and their lamentations for their lost countrymen—a lyric strain which must have swept away the hearts of his Athenian audience as they recalled many similar bereavements that had just befallen them at the time when the "Agamemnon" was first produced.

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*Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française, des Origines à 1900.* Publiée sous la direction de L. Petit de Julleville. Tome I.: Moyen Âge; Première Partie. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1896.

To judge from this initial volume, the result of the task undertaken by M. Petit de Julleville and his fellow-workers will be an invaluable addition to the history of the French language and literature. The work, to be completed in eight volumes, of which the last will appear only some years hence, while it purposes to treat the subject comprehensively and minutely from the Strassburg Oaths in 842 to the end of the nineteenth century, is not intended for strictly special or for merely popular use, but is addressed to the general class of educated readers in all countries. If the volumes yet to come fulfil the promises of this first issue, we shall at last possess, in not too bulky a shape, the best conclusions of contemporary learning and judgment in France on the vast subject with which the work professes to deal. Accuracy of scholarship was, indeed, to be expected from the list of distinguished names prefixed to the table of contents; the expectation is fully justified by the character of the treatment, as well as by the admirably selective bibliography at the end of each chapter; but it is more than gratifying to find that incongruities of method and style, usually thought to be inseparable from work done in collaboration, have thus far been successfully avoided, save in one instance, to which particular attention will presently be drawn.

Two striking features of the general conception of the work call for special notice. For the first time in a complete history of French literature on a grand scale, the productions of the Middle Ages are to receive the ample space they deserve, instead of being, as in most treatises, summarily disposed of in one or two half-contemptuous, often perfunctory chapters. Further, literature and philology work here side by side, each great literary epoch being preceded by a broad yet thorough exposition of the development of the language during that time. The present volume shows the application of the plan to the period included between 842 and the time when strictly mediæval influences began to wane. From this are omitted all works written in Latin, whether scholastic or other, "as not properly belonging to the national literature, but to the general literary history of Latin Christianity."

It is not possible to speak otherwise than with unstinted praise of M. Ferdinand Brunot's masterly introduction on the origin of the French language, perhaps the ablest, and certainly to us the most interesting, chapter in the book. Though the subject bristles with controverted points, the writer has done justice to every hypothesis, all the while maintaining his own positions firmly and without a lapse into the unnecessary vivacities of expression which philological discussion seems to have an unfortunate tendency to provoke. This introduction is far too detailed to be called a sketch, and would deserve separate publication. Among other excellences it contains a comparative table of the different stages through which the French language has passed, illustrated in renderings of part of the Strassburg Oaths from the original form to that of the present day.

The literary part of the work is divided into five chapters, each of which has been assigned to a separate writer. Their subjects are as follows: religious narrative poems, national epics, epics based on ancient classical stories, epics (so called) of courtesy, and songs. In spite of the relative dulness and meagre literary importance of much of the matter here examined, not one of the writers has failed to make his share attractive; two of them, MM. Clédat and Jeanroy, who have respectively treated the subjects of the last two chapters, handle their material with rather more grace than their collaborators, probably because of the greater intrinsic interest it contains, for no competent critic can feel hampered in having to speak of Tristan and Iseut, of the lays of Marie of France, of the work of Chrétien de Troyes, or of mediæval song. The less inviting topics of religious narrative and pseudo-classical epic allotted to MM. Petit de Julleville and Constans, have been examined with scholarship and criticised with laudable sobriety of taste.

We wish that we could say the same thing of M. Léon Gautier's work on the Chansons de Geste, by far the bulkiest chapter in the volume, filling one hundred and twenty-two pages of the text. Of the erudition here displayed we cannot speak but in praise. Few passages in the book are better worked out or more interesting than his exposition of the rise and development of the epical romances that hold so important a place in the literary history of France during the Middle Ages, and in their time did so much towards keeping alive the spirit of chivalry through their presentation of heroic and national ideals. But less commendable is the enthusiastic fervor which M. Gautier thinks fit to show in upholding the *present* æsthetic merit of the 'Chanson de Roland,' of Aliscans, and all the rest—with only trifling reservations. We note, by the way, that he quotes very sparingly indeed. Not much good comes to any cause from the studious cultivation, in its defence, of an almost uniformly hyperbolical, and at times ejaculatory, style. To do this is, as has been said, to run the risk of forcibly displacing the centre of interest of a great literature. On the point in question, it is possible, even permissible, to hold a diametrically opposite opinion to that expressed by M. Gautier, for many a student of these romances timidly admits, in private, that much reading of them is a deadly weariness to the spirit. No one to-day contests their historical and linguistic importance. As M. Gautier has contented himself with merely alluding to differences of view, we venture to refer readers who may care to examine a vigorous polemic on the other side to M. Brunetière's article entitled "L'Érudition contemporaine et la littérature française au moyen âge," in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June 1st, 1879. The fact that this paper now stands first in the recently collected "Études Critiques" constitutes a fair presumption that the author's opinion remains unchanged.

But, notwithstanding the discrepancy, to which sufficient reference has now been made, the literary part of the work is unusually excellent; its writers have collected and classified a mass of material most of which is hardly known, even by name, to the general reader, and only imperfectly understood by many who profess familiarity with the literature of France. New conclusions were scarcely to be expected from men whose special work and ways of thinking have long been known to the world of letters, and yet each one of them has found something to add to his subject in the matter of information or of commentary. From one point of view, M. Gaston Paris's admirable preface to the first two volumes stands higher than any other division of this treatise. The sweeping generalizations, dear to the French critic, with which it abounds are not of a character to arouse hostility; they rank among the most generally accepted of critical "formulas," whether in France or out of it. What especially recommends his portion of the work to our notice is the uniform correctness and eloquent precision of his style. There is no doubt less difficulty in selecting expression for somewhat familiar propositions than in finding new ideas, the search for which is apt to interfere with what some of M. Paris's collaborators scornfully term "rhetoric"; but we may well wish that the latter had been alive to the demands of the situation in this respect, on all occasions. Surely, without cavil, it is not too much to ask that a work dealing with matters literary should be free from such cacophony as "mélange étrange" (Introd. p. lxxx.); from such a barbarous hybrid as "monoassonancé" (p. 116), which is not atoned for by its inverted commas; and from such inelegant constructions as the following: "Chacun dans *leur* langue" (Introd. p. lxxvii), "Héroïsme ou folie, l'un et l'autre *est* loin de nous" (p. 13), and "*est* une satire *et* qui n'épargne personne." The last of these clumsy constructions is repeated several times.

The book itself is a superb specimen of the best that French publishers can produce in regard to paper and type. It contains several illustrations, consisting of facsimiles of manu-

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scripts and exquisite reproductions of antique illumination, rivalling the originals in delicacy and purity of color. Those, however, serve rather to embellish the volume than to elucidate matters contained in the text. It is not too much to say, in the words of the preface, that those who have aided in the preparation of this great work "have deserved well of learning and of their country," and earned the thanks of all who take pleasure in the union of sound learning with literary discrimination and skill.

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*State Railroad Control*, with a History of its Development in Iowa. By Frank H. Dixon. With an introduction by Henry C. Adams. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Prof. Adams's introduction to Mr. Dixon's historical résumé divides the history of inland transportation in the United States into four periods—first, that which came to a close in 1830, marked chiefly by schemes of internal improvement at federal expense; second, the period from 1830 to 1850 (internal improvements carried on by States); third, 1850 to 1870 (railroad development by private corporations); fourth, 1870 to the present time (the period of commissions—State and interstate). Of commissions there are two sorts, weak and strong, the chief difference being that the first confines itself to investigating and making reports, while the second has authority of some kind over rates. The Massachusetts commission is the best known example of the first kind; in Iowa both sorts of commission have been tried. For the future the choice, Mr. Adams thinks, is between commissions having considerable power of control and Government ownership and management. He is opposed to Government ownership, not because it would be bad for the railroads, but because it would be bad for the Government. It would make the national administration so powerful that the legislature and judiciary would be swamped.

Prof. Adams is followed by Mr. Dixon, who gives a detailed history of the commission system in Iowa, shows how the Granger movement originated in "the feeling"—not in the fact—that "rates were too high" ("a careful study of the rate question will disclose a rapid fall in rates from the close of the war down to the end of 1870"); that the first Granger law was repealed after four years' trial, in 1878, the only intelligible reason given being that the Grangers had overshot the mark and made their law so oppressive that it could not be continued in force; that this was followed by an advisory commission, and this in 1888 by a commission with power to establish reasonable maximum rates. Meanwhile it has been made clear that the most important part of the railroad business of the country is not that subject to the States, but interstate. The supervision of this has been relegated by Congress to an Interstate Commission, so that we now have a double system, that of State commissions as to local business, and a federal commission as to through business. The history of this last system of Government supervision remains to be written.

The book, though valuable for its collection of facts, is inconclusive. It discusses a problem, as serious and comprehensive as any that can engage the attention of man, which has been approached as if it could be settled by the application of a few general principles. Rates should not be exorbitant; let us have them all fixed by a commission. It is unfair that one shipper should pay ten dollars for a shipment from New York to Chicago, and another fifteen for a similar shipment from New York to Cleveland; prohibit it by a law against discrimination. Pooling through business tends to prevent competition; prohibit pooling. To put the whole matter in a very few words, the business of the railroads might be managed better than it is; call a Government commission into existence to manage it. The question which now needs discussion first above all, especially after twenty-five years' experience of commissions, is what they have actually accomplished.

That they have not reduced rates except here and there, and temporarily (these having been steadily forced down by general causes connected with the business itself), seems to be admitted by the author; that they have introduced any new principle for determining what is a "reasonable" rate is nowhere apparent; that they have abolished the test of "what the traffic will bear" does not seem to be asserted; that they have enabled every one to get his goods shipped for a rate determined by the mere cost of transportation is clearly not the fact. What have they done? So far as appears from this volume, they have accomplished little except to give publicity to all facts connected with what is called the "railroad problem," and to have produced a good deal of important litigation which has thrown into bolder and bolder relief the one underlying fact of all, that railroad charges are regulated in the end by economic causes over which legislatures and commissions have no control. If we were to say that thus far railroad commissions had had very much the same effect on the railroad problem that labor commissions have had on the labor problem, we should not be far out of the way. Curiously enough, there is some evidence now that the commissions are being utilized for an object exactly the opposite of that for which they were introduced—not to lower rates in the interest of shippers, but to make rates more stable in the interest of the railroad owners. To the latter for twenty-five years these commissions have been a standing socialistic menace.

The author, though he refers to the decisions of the Supreme Court (p. 28), does not seem to be aware that they decide anything more than that the States have the power to establish limitations of the right of railroad companies to fix rates. The Supreme Court has laid it down in repeated decisions that this is not an arbitrary power to confiscate and destroy, and that it cannot be used to strike at the root of property and contract. In other words, the power must be reasonably used, and of this reasonableness the courts are to judge. In the case of Reagan vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Company (154 U. S., 362) it was held that a State Commission could be enjoined by a court of equity from enforcing rates shown to be unreasonable; in the more recent case of St. Louis and San Francisco Railway Company vs. Gill (156 U. S., 649) it was decided that if a legislature itself chose to establish unreasonable rates, the defence of unreasonableness might be set up in an action for the collection of penalties.

In conclusion, we may say that if we were to sum up the impression produced by the history of the relation between Government and transportation in this country, it would be that Prof. Adams's first period was one of schemes, and nothing else; that the second was one of State construction ending in bankruptcy; that the third was one which showed that private corporate construction and management produced great prosperity, accompanied by a declining cost to the public; and that the fourth—that of commissions and State supervision—had thus far been, among those who had actually built the railroads, one of great suffering and of constant struggle for the right to enjoy the profits guaranteed them by their charters, aggravated by wild attempts to escape the effects of depression by unnecessary construction of unproductive lines. Certainly no argument in favor of public control of rates or Government purchase can be extracted from such facts as these.

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*Introduction to Sociology*. By Arthur Fairbanks. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

The aim of Mr. Fairbanks's volume is, he tells us, rather practical than theoretic; by this he means, apparently, that it is designed as a groundwork for the study of the subject. It certainly contains a good deal of information about the development of human society, derived from the author's reading of Spencer, Darwin, Bagehot, Comte, Giddings, Malthus, Bluntschli, Montesquieu, and other writers; but when we ask what he adds to what they tell us, or what he maintains that sociology teaches, we are somewhat at a loss for an answer. The reason is that he has no very clear conception of what he means by sociology. The great discovery of Spencer was that progress is produced by the development of the heterogeneous out of the homogeneous, and the law of natural selection shows, in one field, how this takes place. Maine has explained that *status* precedes contract, and it is generally believed that all over the world common ownership of land preceded individual ownership, and the clan, the State. All this is sociological knowledge; but what is sociology? If it is merely the sum of all the sciences of man, it is no new science. If it is something different from this, what is it? Does it exhibit any law or laws not economical, not anthropological, not political, governing the development of society?

The author seems to think that it differs from political economy because it studies groups, while economics deal with man as an individual. But these groups are mere aggregations of individuals, and the author himself explains very clearly that treating the group as an organism is a mere figure of speech. The family, clan, state, or church is merely a collection of persons acting together for a common purpose. The common purpose is what determines the behavior of the group, and this common purpose is founded upon the desires, wants, aims, and beliefs of individuals. A group of great importance in our day is the corporation. Does Mr. Fairbanks really suppose that we can discover a law of the evolution of corporations without considering the purpose and aim of the half-dozen human beings who obtain the charter? Probably not. Probably he has, at bottom, a hope of discovering some law by which, at a given stage of civilization, corporations become important and common. But he can only get at it in one of two ways—either by showing that in the past corporations have always made their appearance in connection with certain surrounding phenomena, which warrants the inference of a connection between them, or that they answer some want, desire, or necessity of man as we know him. What light will sociology throw on these matters, *qua* sociology? The *subject* of sociology is as old as man. What the science professes to teach is a

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new method of studying society, but what is it?

Sociology, as it appears in Mr. Fairbanks's book, has for its content the *omne scibile* about Man as he appears in groups. We are to believe that, after the study of the individual, the study of persons grouped into "organisms," such as the family, tribe, and state, will come to crown the work. But this is a mere prediction. So we might predict a science of cosmology; but we should not feel warranted in calling the forecast practical in its aim.

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*Republican National Convention, St. Louis,* June 16th to 18th, 1896. Illustrated. With a History of the Republican Party, and a Survey of National Politics since the Party's Foundation, etc., etc. By Charles M. Harvey. St. Louis: I. Haas Publishing and Engraving Co. 1896.

MR. HARVEY is associate editor, as his title-page announces, of the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, and his book is a campaign history and text-book "for permanent reference." There is a quantity of the usual campaign information, and a skeleton history of the Republican party, all of which, as far as it goes, seems to be accurately compiled, while the volume is enriched with numerous portraits of eminent contemporary Republican statesmen. These include men of such distinction as to forbid the idea, so often suggested by books of this sort, that they have been induced to become promoters of the volume by the hope of making the public familiar with their features. Possibly in some cases the portrait may slightly over-accentuate the trait which has endeared the person represented to the public, but this is no doubt owing to its having been selected by friendly, not critical hands. If straightforward frankness, rugged honesty, virile candor, and boyish *bonhomie* typify the prevailing party expressions, where should we look to find them emphasized if not in a campaign handbook? The illustrations are, for the most part, nearly equal in size and in artistic merit, and except in the few cases in which we are unfortunate enough never to have looked upon the original, we can vouch for them as unmistakable likenesses. Of those of the committee which "secured the convention for St. Louis," so much cannot fairly be said. With the exception of Mayor Walbridge, the committeemen are not treated as handsomely as the Senators and other party leaders, though this cannot have been the author's intention.

The history possesses comparatively little general value, as there is no proper examination of the merits of the questions passed in review. Reciprocity is mentioned, for instance, but we can find no explanation of what reciprocity is. The independent Republican movement of 1872 is alluded to, as is also the "Mugwump" bolt of 1884, but the author does not seem to be aware of any historical connection between the two. The Liberty party's relation to the Republican party, if only as chronologically antecedent, is not so much as hinted at.

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*The Hastings Chess Tournament.* Edited by Horace F. Cheshire. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

*The Principles of Chess.* By James Mason. London: Horace Cox. 1896.

THE story of the Hastings chess tournament is very completely told in Mr. Cheshire's volume. The score of every game is given in full, and in nearly every instance the turning-point of the game is illustrated by a diagram. The annotations, instead of being by one hand, are the work of a dozen of the leading players, the idea being that no player should annotate his own games. The result of this arrangement is a mass of valuable and sometimes rather amusing criticism. Chess-players familiar with the predilections of the different masters who took part in this tournament will note, here and there, a personal flavor in their annotations which makes them more entertaining than such commentaries usually are. Mr. Cheshire has also provided likenesses and brief biographies of all the players, and has done his editorial work so carefully that, after a thorough examination, we have failed to detect a single misprint in the scores of the games.

The Hastings tournament was one of the most successful meetings of its kind. With one or two exceptions, the twenty-two players who competed were in the front rank of living players, and the games played were of excellent quality—superior, in the opinion of good judges, to those played during this summer at Nuremberg. Few finer games have ever been recorded than those played at Hastings by Steinitz against Bardeleben, by Tarrasch against Walbrodt, and by Pillsbury against Janowski; and in these particular cases the annotations of Tarrasch and Pillsbury are quite worthy of the text. One of the best innovations tried in this tournament was the giving of consolation prizes for games *won* rather than *drawn*, in order to encourage the players to finish out their games; yet, in spite of this inducement, Schlechter, who has been dubbed the "Viennese drawing-master," managed to play twelve drawn games out of his twenty-one! Another striking result of the influence of the Vienna school on the players of the day is to be found in the fact that the queen's gambit, the Ruy Lopez, and the French defence were the openings adopted in 142 games out of a total of 230. It is certainly to be regretted that the tendency of the modern game is in the direction of safety rather than of brilliancy.

Mr. James Mason, who began life as a New York newsboy, has been for twenty years one of the best known expositors of the game, and in his little book on the 'Principles of Chess' he puts into convenient shape much information about position play and the openings which the beginner will find useful. But, after all, chess is like other games, and the best way to learn it is to practise with stronger players.

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